

Practical
Applications of
Democratic
Administration

Education for Living Series

Under the Editorship of H. H. Remmers

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Practical
Applications of
Democratic
Administration

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Editor's Foreword

As this is being written, two ideologies are in conflict for the possession of the minds of men—one authoritarian, absolutist, dictatorial; the other equalitarian, relativistic, and democratic. This struggle, short of another world war, appears to be likely to continue for a considerable number of years, and is creating a world in which tolerance of uncertainty will be progressively at a higher premium. Which value system of the two in question has the greater survival value, and which promises the greater individual fulfillment and happiness?

The authors' answers to these questions are clear. The democratic personality and society are more viable than the authoritarian personality and society.

Just as change is the only constant in a dynamic society, so the democratic way of life is a process of constant adjustment, through participation and consent, to the revolutionary changes that its own technology have brought and are bringing to society.

There is, happily, both clinical and experimental evidence to support the conclusion that democracy is more constructive, less frustrating, and less generative of conflict and maladjustment than authoritarian organizations. But the democratic way of life is also more difficult to learn than are authoritarian ways.

The implications of this for education are of the profoundest significance. The difficulties of achieving a more perfect democratic way of life in all its value dimensions are not blinked by the authors of this volume. Home, school, and community must coöperate as never before to implement the democratic process. "Deliberately planned democratic participation in school and family," to quote Frenkel-Brunswick, "individualized approach

to the child, and the right proportion of permissiveness and guidance may be instrumental in bringing about the attitudes necessary for a genuine identification with society and thus for international understanding."

The present volume is dedicated to this task of implementing, through education, the democratic process. The basic strengths of our society in an ever changing world are our faith in the democratic process and the methods of science. There remains much of authoritarianism in individuals, in many homes, and in many of our institutions. But there is much evidence also that democratization, "learning the ways of democracy," is steadily on the march, despite much overt as well as covert opposition. In a neurotic, paranoid world this trend toward democracy may well be the principal symbol of sanity. And the stakes in the ongoing struggle for the minds of men may well be civilization as we know it.

These are somber reflections. The editor, however, shares the fundamental though not easy optimism of the authors of the present volume. He commends it to the thoughtful study of all those who are concerned about the perdurance of our society.

H. H. REMMERS



Preface

The key problem in administration today is the age-old problem of human fellowship—man's feelings toward his fellow man in professional, social, and spiritual relationships. Conflicts on local, state, national, and international levels are caused basically by ill feelings that have developed between individuals and groups of people. To improve man's ability to live and work with his fellow man is still the most challenging goal in education.

The purpose of this book is threefold; first, to help administrators and prospective administrators see the significant role that education plays in the furtherance of desirable human relationships; second, to give added meanings and new interpretations to the concept of educational leadership in a free society; third, to describe possible ways of putting educational programs into action in public-school settings.

Democracy is conceived here as something more than a political form of government. It is interpreted as a way of life in which one and all participate in the development of values, procedures, and laws that govern the relationships of human beings. Three fundamental principles emerge from this interpretation: (1) that there are undeveloped capacities in all people, (2) that there are undiscovered possibilities for the development of human intelligence, especially intelligence viewed as a way of pooling mental resources and capitalizing on all human experience, and (3) that no group should usurp the right to rule others without their consent.

Part One contains four chapters which present basic educational, psychological, sociological, and anthropological principles, considerations, and interpretations. Writers from the

fields of education, psychology, sociology, and anthropology have contributed appropriate chapters to this part of the book.

Part Two consists of seven chapters which present seven different treatments of applied educational leadership. Each of these chapters has its reference point in an actual community situation. All the writers are public-school administrators.

Part Three consists of two chapters which deal with the professional education of school administrators and with probable future trends in the field of democratic administration.

Since all the contributors were located in Michigan it was possible to plan and to discuss content and style with each of them as frequently as seemed desirable. The authors represent different academic disciplines—institutions of higher education, a state department of public instruction, and public-school and community schools.

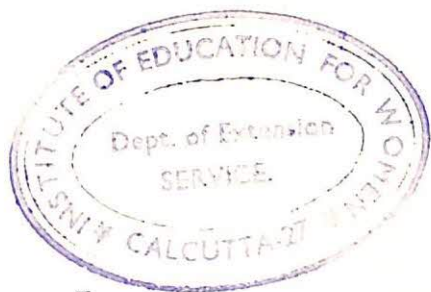
This book, written as it was by a group of busy experimentalists, undoubtedly exhibits certain weaknesses. It is hoped that it will increase the communication in this developmental field and also that it will encourage others to report their beginnings or findings.

CLYDE M. CAMPBELL

December, 1951

Part One

Educational Leadership in a Free Society



I

The Need for Dynamic Leadership in a Free Society

The world is in a critical situation that calls for great leadership. As man enters the second half of the twentieth century he faces an ominous yet challenging period. History records many periods of great crises that have called for great leadership, but the current period presents a more complicated situation than any that man has previously faced. The potential for self-destruction has been steadily increased by man's inventiveness. The parts of the world previously separated widely by geography and social distance now, because of their interdependence, present the possibility of world-wide war and world-wide chaos. How the present situation came about is the subject of much speculation and interpretation. The historian of the future will probably attribute many of the dislocations antecedent to the crisis to the industrial revolution. He will probably point out that dislocations were increased by World War I, by the great depression of the 1930's and World War II. Then he will deal with the developments following the Second World War—with the armistice period, with the cold-war period, with the period of small wars and recurrent and daily crises when the peoples of the world felt that fate was holding them in the balance.

Changes in a culture come that way. They are slow in developing, yet they move relentlessly toward a pattern of living that is always evolving. The Renaissance, for example, was evolutionary in nature. It was a slow change, forming and reforming through the fourteenth and fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The French Revolution, which seemed to represent such sudden chaos, was not caused overnight; its causes preceded it by one to two hundred years, depending on the interpretation placed upon the events of that period. The present cultural pattern has been molded in a similar fashion. Like a stream seeking the bed on which it can best travel, people have been pressed into a channel of activity that flows along a path, winding in and out, held within boundaries by the mores and institutions of their culture.

A SOCIAL REVOLUTION IS TAKING PLACE

How far present-day culture has progressed in its evolutionary expansion is, of course, a matter for conjecture. There are some who believe that the industrialized societies of the world are ten years into a phase of social revolution. When one reflects upon the great changes that have occurred in the past half-century, the basis of such a belief is easy to accept. For instance, in the United States there is scarcely an aspect of present-day society that has not been altered remarkably since the time when people were rural folk, very independent and quite self-sustaining in their social and economic life.

The causes of social revolution are so varied and complex that a discussion of them would not be justified in this book. They are as involved and complicated as life itself. In this chapter certain aspects of social change will be treated briefly, first to show that there is a great need for effective leadership, and second to point out that educational leadership has a significant role to play in the development and furtherance of a new kind of world society. What are some of the influences, conditions, and problems with which people must deal in the

years ahead? What are some of the value judgments that must be made in a world that has suddenly been contracted to the extent that a few days' travel will take one anywhere he may wish to go? What are the implications of a world league of free societies? What has been appropriate leadership in the past may be inappropriate leadership today because people think and react differently from people of just a few decades ago. A bird's-eye view of some of these momentous changes may help to show that dynamic programs are the most suitable programs for education in these times. Before considering any educational program seriously the more important social conditions should be looked at in a studied manner.

There never has been in history such a combination of circumstances as now exists. The fact that world government is being considered seriously may prove to be one of the most amazing developments of these times. Even rabid isolationists frankly admit that our own country has become inextricably interlocked with the destinies of all the other countries. All governments, both large and small, have joined the United Nations or would like to do so. In earlier periods strong nations were virtually independent of all other nations, secure and proud of their position. Nations now fear to be alone and isolated from others. A unique concept in international relations today is a yearning for a coöperative system that will help bring peace and stability to the world.

Two world wars have radically changed the social setting. Individuals, institutions, and nations are not the same, nor can they ever be the same. America, for example, cannot retrace its steps. It must move forward into unexplored avenues of international coöperation. Just as the crusades in medieval times created new wants and new desires, so has the Second World War developed felt needs and longings, even among the peoples living in the less civilized sections of the earth. Close contacts with people from distant places have engendered a deep yearning for better conditions at home, particularly with re-

spect to material comforts. Cheap labor in colonies and in less developed countries may be difficult to obtain in the future. The exploited worker in tropical and semitropical countries no longer is willing to play the role of pack-bearer or servant for others. He is organizing and demanding a larger share of the profits of production. One of the crucial problems of today is how to guarantee all peoples a fairly equal standard of living and yet keep the political and economic systems intact and in operation.

With respect to equality, what is true for individuals is likewise true for nations. World trade and world production should be conducted on a reciprocal two-way track. In other words, there should be equal or almost equal advantages for all. For the first time in history thoughtful people in the United States are recommending that more fortunate peoples give up material goods and privileges and rights in exchange for world order. Apparently the peoples of the world are suffering the birth pains incident to the creation of a new and different global society. What are the implications for leadership? Why has present leadership failed?

IS PROGRESS INEVITABLE?

Ever since the upsurge of scientific inventions in the sixteenth century, it has been assumed that mankind is making progress toward a more efficient and a more humanitarian way of life. It has been taken for granted that as human beings gained increasing control over forces in the environment the happiness, contentment, and social satisfactions of people would increase. That man has become more efficient from the viewpoint of producing economic goods cannot be questioned; whether or not he is headed toward more humanitarian goals or toward a kind of social relationship that will bring enduring satisfactions is debatable. There are some who feel that man's relation to man is far less desirable from a social point of view than it was in some previous periods of history. Lewis Mum-

ford presents an interesting case for those who lived in medieval times, with respect to the spiritual development of the human personality. Here is his comparison of man in the past with man in the present: "In his esthetic consciousness, the medieval craftsman, even the dumb peasant, lived on a higher level than his modern counterpart; his feelings were more fully developed if his intellect was less sharp; and though his domestic life was coarse his public functions were often magnificent, for he daily had the experience of a sacred art which as yet did nothing to sacrifice its austerity or its depth in order to meet a degraded popular demand" (17).

War Breeds Tensions

The toll of two world conflicts in three decades and the subsequent staggering costs of rehabilitation and preparedness programs have changed man's lot. Waste and destruction of men and materials have been and are truly appalling. The world has never witnessed such internecine warfare as has occurred in modern times. The effectiveness of modern weapons is such a familiar story that there can be little purpose in further discussion here. Moreover, there is no advantage in brooding over events of the past unless it helps to direct action in the future. The prospects for the future would be less dismal if there were a ray of hope for lasting peace. But the fundamental causes for strife and friction are still present. Men are being pitted against men instead of working together toward goals that benefit all men. Man has learned ways of suppressing people, but he has yet to learn ways of freeing people through cooperative action and behavior. The discouraging picture today is not the wars of the past but man's inept plans for bringing peace in the future.

Modern Industrial Civilization Breeds Tensions

The preceding paragraph dealt with grievances that have occasioned international conflict. There is still another source

of friction just as pernicious in character and as deleterious in its effect upon human personalities. In modern industrial cultures there exists an intense form of mental tension. People are cracking up under the strain of present-day living. Apparently all minds and bodies are not adjusted to present-day operations and social relationships. Bloodless warfare, as typified by contest and contention, is prevalent in all communities. Many individuals are at mental war within themselves, worrying about what has happened in the past and fearing what may occur in the future. Psychiatrists and others frankly state that there has been an actual increase in insanity since the turn of the century.

Indeed, mental health is a serious problem in our present-day civilization. Great progress has been achieved by science in the way of increased production, but little has been done to improve people's peace of mind. To say it another way, twentieth-century technology has brought material comforts to man but it has made slight progress in enhancing the amicable relationships of human beings. Few if any signs indicate increased happiness and contentment; in fact the opposite is true—the portents in society point toward cleavages, not harmony.

This strange anomaly of progress without progress must be dealt with. In many ways the sixth decade of this century presents a unique opportunity for attaining peace and a genuine spirit of brotherhood, but the social structure and the people within that structure still exhibit certain tendencies that lead away from peace. The daily acts and practices of man are headed toward strife and friction, not toward brotherhood and unity. Extreme forms of nationalism and maladjustments in economic systems both presage disaster if leadership should prove inadequate during the 'fifties. It must be recognized that an economic system which fosters competition has its role in a free society. Competition of a desirable type motivates people to greater achievements. But for many the goal in life is to win at any price, or almost any price. Such extreme forms of competition encourage immorality. Victories won on such a

basis are merely defeats for other people; there is no social gain and there may be social loss from the deep-seated enmity generated. Much of the present-day competition has become such cutthroat competition that everyone loses over a long period of time. It seems a peculiar paradox that while individuals, institutions, and nations strive to develop character and virility in people, they permit or encourage practices that lead to social conflict and the ultimate debasement of people.

Scientific Invention Has Changed the Social Structure

Ever since the advent of the scientific method, the social structure of the world has been changing in an accelerated manner. The potential power of science was aptly expressed by Archimedes when he was reputed to have said, "Give me a place where I can stand and I will move the world." Science has moved the world. The present-day industrial system with its ever-increasing efficiency has had a firm foundation upon which it could stand. Science operating through mechanized production has changed the world not only from an economic point of view but also from a social and political point of view. Archimedes clearly expressed the colossal possibilities of invention.

It was not one invention but many related inventions that brought the sweeping changes of the modern period of history. Ideas expand in rocket-like fashion. As Bertram Fowler once said, "Ideas have hands and feet. They'll go to work for themselves" (7). One discovery leads to another until the increment of discoveries pyramids to an edifice that no single inventor could have pictured alone. All phases of national life have been affected by the repercussions of new ideas. The automobile, for example, became widely used because someone conceived a vision of a hard road. Nobel invented dynamite to help Swedish farmers remove stones and stumps from the fields; its use in warfare was the work of other inventors. In seeking causes for present conditions or even future conditions it is well to

bear in mind that ideas are difficult to suppress or keep under control. How discoveries will be used cannot be determined in advance. In other words, inventions resemble sparks from a wheel; they fly off in many directions.

The modern industrial system shows rather vividly how ideas burgeon and grow into something that is always new and different. How machines would move the world could not have been anticipated by either inventors or citizens. Machines were accepted because they brought added conveniences to people. But comforts for people through machine production have been only one of many changes effected in the present pattern of social living. Other developments may prove to be of greater significance from a social point of view.

As the factory system moved in from Europe it changed the economic structure. Since manufacturing demanded large capital, only a few people could afford to own and operate an industrial plant. The day when each person could manage his individual enterprise had passed. From the viewpoint of ownership the essential difference between the economic system of the present and that of the past is the possession of capital. In colonial days people with a relatively small amount of money could acquire land by moving just a little farther west than their neighbors. Today there are few farm frontiers where man can go to escape bondage from his present position. Even in Alaska farming with a plow and a hoe is obsolete. The service occupations are increasing in proportion. Service and production jobs predominate. Whether workingmen wish it or not, they are very dependent upon those who own and operate large-scale business establishments.

In such a mechanized system the individual tends to lose his significance. Especially is this true in factories, where owners and laborers live and work in different environments, having little if any social or professional contacts. Many men today are finding themselves tethered to some kind of machine at which they perform specialized jobs in a routine fashion. Large num-

bers of workers develop the emphatic feeling that like dies they are fitted for one part and one part only in the overall plan of production. To many workers modern industry is cold and impersonal. Coöperative projects or group undertakings are seldom used or considered even when the occasion for their use would be most appropriate. Men tend to develop the feeling that the institution where they work is cold because (1) orders are given and not evolved, and (2) work is routine rather than creative. It must be recognized that in a "well-oiled" system of production the individual can seldom put an original idea into use because it will interfere with the system. The great industrial development that has provided so many advantages for people has left some unfortunate residues and one of these problems is the industrial worker who more and more is becoming a machine-like robot in a heavily charged power-driven society. Not only is the status of the individual in the productive and service systems a matter of great concern, but it is equally important to evaluate the repercussions of the economic system upon the growth of a better democratic culture. The fact that man has become a cog in a machine militates against the futherance of creative talents and the self-determination of goals for large numbers of people.

PEOPLE FAIL TO SEE STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES IN SYSTEMS

If people saw clearly that industrial life was endangering democratic social growth, steps could be taken to offset or alleviate evils in the system. But too frequently people accept, endorse, and support the evils in an organizational pattern just as readily as they support its commendable traits. How to get people to assay the strength and weakness of institutions in society so that good features are not represented as bad and bad features characterized as good is a social problem of great magnitude. That the mass-production system of economy has been of inestimable value to man cannot be questioned. But in the minds of many the industrial plant has become a venerable in-

stitution. Instead of being viewed as a means to an end, the factory is deified as an object of worship. In other words, the machine increasingly is governing man, and not man the machine.

There is no intention to imply that people should legislate against or radically alter the present industrial system. The mass-production system is here and most assuredly in the future will augment rather than decrease its stop-watch method of efficiency. It should be admitted that rapid strides have been taken by management in the last decade toward improving working conditions in industrial plants. Not only have working conditions been made more pleasant, but attention has been directed to improving the social life of employees. In a few instances industrial organizations have provided elaborate recreational facilities for workingmen. Furthermore, many large corporations now make available free educational facilities for the upgrading of employees in jobs. As Dwayne Orton, director of education of the International Business Machines Corporation, recently pointed out:

The highest job satisfaction can be had only by increasing the factor of satisfaction in the job itself—for example, by giving the worker more responsibility for making his set-up and inspecting his own work as well as operating the machine, by increasing the range of judgment allowed him, by inviting and respecting his suggestions for job improvement, by providing him with unlimited assistance for job efficiency and personal development.

For such a program of integration as these paragraphs suggest, education is the primary agent. (22)

The purpose is not to criticize industry but to indicate practices that restrict or retard the development of democratic living. When men are reduced to blind followers rather than being independent self-made thinkers, they are forming patterns of behavior that fit a Machiavellian method of living better than a coöperative method of social relationships. How to alleviate or eliminate undesirable behavior patterns in a de-

mocracy is the problem not only of industry but also of other institutions including the family, the church, and the school.

THE NATURE OF SOCIAL CONTROLS HAS CHANGED

People in agrarian days followed certain practices in daily living not because of laws established by an outside agency but for the reason that the controlling influence over conduct rested with neighbors and friends. It was these closely knit groups that determined what was good and what was bad character in people.

Alteration of this design in community control became evident with the advent of the automobile and the hard road. The automobile combined with improved methods of communication tended to make the small town a replica of the larger city. Not only did rural folk have more frequent contact with the city and its environment, but the city people likewise increased their contact with the rural community. Improved transportation facilities permitted daily delivery of newspapers. Mediums of communication such as the newspaper and radio influenced greatly the thinking and behavior of small-town residents. Skillful writers and speakers tended to describe and identify city life as desirable and best. Boys and girls began to leave the farm and the small community to seek employment in nearby urban centers and at the same time old people drifted back to the small town to retire. The very effective control which neighborhood groups exercised over people waned rapidly with improved transportation and communication. Such control no longer exists except in small isolated sections of the country whose number is decreasing annually. People have been largely freed from the supervisory domination of their neighbors.

The city is not a community; at best it is a mixture of many communities. Even though people in urban centers live closer together, they are less friendly as neighbors. As one wag so

aptly expressed it, people who live in apartments don't know their neighbors, but they suspect them. The city has many characteristics of the herd or mob. The urban dweller as a person tends to set up barriers that separate him from all other individuals. Because of such reserve the easy flow of friendship is stymied before it can become activated. The community spirit so prevalent in many isolated small towns seldom exists in the metropolitan center. People who live in the city apparently have other tastes than coöperative group work. It seems that the daily commuter has become addicted to the exciting, the transient, and the novel.

PRESSURE GROUPS CHARACTERIZE DEMOCRATIC SOCIETY

A significant and rather recent overtone of the industrial revolution has been the multiplication of pressure groups established primarily to further the objectives of organizations and of individuals within organizations. Since industry has so segregated people that self-interests become easily identified, it is not surprising that pressure groups have been formed. In short, when industrial establishments divided work into specialized areas of activity, a compartmentalized society tended to develop. Men who were engaged in the same field of work found that they were favorably disposed to an organization which would further their professional and social welfare. During the earlier years of industrialization most of these organizations were initiated for two primary purposes: (1) to set up standards of preparation for admittance to the trade or profession, (2) to formulate criteria for desirable ethical practice. But as with all organizations, the purposes were expanded when like interests and wishes were discovered. Many of the groups founded for the purpose of improving standards in their profession soon permitted the economic motive to become paramount. Original purposes became colored with avaricious tendencies. The social welfare motive receded to the background and in its

place the goals of self-preservation and self-enhancement became predominant.

During the twentieth century there has occurred in the United States a great proliferation of organizations preoccupied with the economic system. Hundreds of committees and associations are propagandizing for special interests usually perfectly legitimate as to social character, but sometimes quite antisocial in nature. There is a steady increase in the number of lobbying agencies and associations representing special interest groups and often using very persuasive and propagandistic materials in which there is little reference to truth. Not only is the individual directly influenced by these organizations, but government is carried on to a great extent by securing agreement among the various lobbies. The only general corrective ever proposed has been the "people's lobby," but it has not proved effective. No organizational development has characterized the twentieth century more than the lobbying phenomenon.

Frequent contacts with professional and trade associations influence the thinking of people on social, political, and economic issues. Belonging and participating subject a person to the many little subtleties of influence of a functioning association. Individuals who actively participate in organizational work tend to accept the value judgments of the group. Especially is this true when other pressure groups make it expedient to rally around a common cause. What the organization decides is desirable social, political, or economic action the individual in the organization tends to accept as the best social, political, or economic program.

VALUE CONCEPTS HAVE CHANGED

One of the serious problems in the culture today is a change in values. The core of values that held western civilization together has been devitalized and replaced by a great pluralism of values characteristic of individualism. It is difficult for most

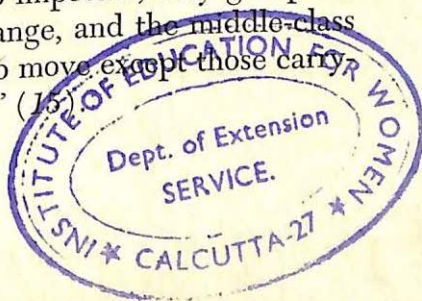
people to know what is good, what is bad, what to accept, what to reject. People today are becoming less and less certain of their opinions on moral, religious, and ethical issues. One significant cause of this lack of certainty is the recurring conflict between theory and practice. Ideals which people profess to believe in are in direct contradiction to what people practice in daily living. In the home and church honesty is extolled as a basic virtue for good citizenship, yet there is considerable dishonesty in business and politics. In international relations honesty is a crime. People accept the ideal of progress yet maintain that age-old fundamentals are best. In the school and community almost everyone expresses allegiance to the democratic way of life; still the people condone and in some instances defend the subjection of minority groups. A survey made in the American zone of Germany by the Information Control Division of the American Military Government pointedly illustrates the disharmony that now exists between present beliefs and present behavior. The study, based on interviews with 3415 persons selected as representing a cross section of Berlin, showed the following: "Women are markedly more biased against Jews than men. Small-town people are more prejudiced than those of the large cities. Prejudice is greater among people with a lower status in society (those with the least education and those with unspecialized jobs). Protestants tend to be more biased than Catholics. Those who attend church regularly are more prejudiced than those who attend irregularly" (20).

Conflicts among the basic loyalties of people have been increasing almost in direct proportion to the influence pressure groups have been able to exercise over individuals and social agencies. People still loudly proclaim fidelity to certain fundamental principles, but either there is a misunderstanding of the principles or present behavior belies deep-seated loyalties to them. In the case of many people apparently there is no conscious realization of conflict between theory and practice. Pressure groups have so benumbed the minds of men that such

words as justice, honor, equality can have almost as many different interpretations as there are interest groups that use the terms. To achieve a feeling and acceptance of common values on the part of the people is an omnipresent problem that education must face in the immediate years ahead. How serious this problem is has been competently expressed by the authors of *The Discipline of Practical Judgment*. Here is their very cogent argument for a new approach to social values:

Every decision, every practical move, bears the stamp of some social orientation, and all questions of practice versus theory are in the last analysis conflicts between social perspectives struggling for control of conduct. The problem of theory and practice cannot be considered apart from the social orientation of persons and social groups. The general social outlook of a group shapes what it will accept as feasible and determines what it will reject as irrelevant and speculative. The character of the persons or groups involved in a situation is as much a factor in the determination of what will work as are the externally existential aspects of the situation. What would be practical to a business executive might be highly unrealistic and theoretical to the social worker. In this historical period of extreme social heterogeneity the insistence of the practical man upon acting without regard to the deep social difference among persons and social groups increases the social frustration that now plagues society and drives all parties in the conflict to rely more and more upon power and less and less upon reason and deliberation in attaining common action. Here, indeed, may be one root of an indigenous fascism. (19)

Under the surface are social undercurrents pulling people in many directions. It is indeed sobering to reflect upon the impending dangers that are ever present when there are strong pressure groups in all nations in all parts of the world. Robert Lynd is another writer who calls attention to the great challenge to liberal education when he says: "It is a time when the institutional chunks of our culture grind against each other in a movement so vast as to dwarf the individual. Never before in our national life have the will and the voice of the single man of integrity and good will seemed so impotent; only group action any longer counts for social change, and the middle-class man can find no group with whom to move except those carrying old banners in dubious directions" (15).



EDUCATION SHOULD MEET SOCIAL NEEDS

When there are such crises as impending wars, increased mental instability, and social pressures that divide rather than unite people, it is time for schools to point programs toward issues of the day. Present practice tends to look back toward events of the past. Educational institutions study what has happened, when it happened, but they say little about why it should have occurred. It is time for administrators and teachers to relate causes and effects. Rather than a matter of omission it is a problem of selecting and choosing those items of knowledge that throw revealing light on problems of the present. That there is a need for selecting material which is pertinent to problems of the present is forcefully substantiated by George Lundberg: "There is no doubt that much of what we now teach on social subjects is worse than useless, because it consists merely of transmitting the errors, prejudices, and speculations of bygone generations" (13). Knowing how civilizations developed is important, but an understanding of where civilization is going and of the ways of directing it is of far greater significance from an educational point of view.

CULTURAL PROGRESS DEMANDS COMMUNITY PROGRAMS OF
EDUCATION

To move effectively into action on the many and varied problems in our culture it is the part of wisdom to start with current problems found in local communities. Local problems if broadly conceived are an interwoven part of state, national, and international problems. What a culture is depends upon what people think, believe, and do in the component communities of that culture. As Walter Cocking recently said, the desirable content for educational programs stems from significant elements found in community life. Improving a culture, then, means improving local communities. Here is a summary statement of his point of

view as expressed at the workshop for professors of school administration at Madison, Wisconsin:

There are three important elements in the composition of any community. There are the natural or physical resources which a community has. There are the human resources which a community has, and there are those man-made resources which we know as social organizations which all communities have. When we go at the business of improving the quality of living in the community, we are attempting to improve these three types of resources. We could write an algebraic formula that would mean something like this. We improve the quality of living in the community to the extent that we are able to improve the resources of a community. There lies the purpose of the school; there lies the method of attack of the school; and there lies the job that has to be done if schools are to be a power in their communities. If we work almost solely at one of these resources and omit the others, the result would be a lop-sided kind of community. We might build up the physical resources of a community and yet leave the people in a very unsatisfactory, unwholesome situation. So the school must direct its attention to all three resources and work at all of them all of the time. (18)

Imaginative Leadership Is Needed

To solve problems in community life educators are needed, first, with vision, second, with ability to further vision, and third, with courage to follow through—to see that the application of vision makes a difference in community living.

The practical schoolman of today is the imaginative thinker. Good education never can be reduced to routine operations; it always is emerging in new patterns, keeping in step with changes that are constantly occurring in an evolving society. The person who correlates academic work with stimulating problems in community life is the real leader who has his feet on the ground. Impractical educators are those who visualize teaching and learning as primarily processes of memorizing subject matter to be checked later by rigid written examinations; such administrators or teachers are idealists. Believing that good education is a cramming process is a judgment as incongruous as a dream. Desirable learning is best, and perhaps

only, achieved when it is related to the solving of problems. To commit to memory what has occurred in the past may be of value in solving problems of the present, and then again it may not. The culture of today is a dynamic culture that should be continuously observed, studied, and evaluated from a fresh point of view.

Educational leaders who make school work functional use the imaginative approach combined with a constructive program of action. The program of action is centered in the community, not in the classroom. Its aims are twofold—to develop individuals as persons and to attain improved human relationships.

Diffusion of Leadership Is Needed

What is needed today is volume in leadership—not a thousand leaders but hundreds of thousands of persons engaging in leadership of some kind. This should not be construed to mean that there is a dichotomy between individual activities and co-operative endeavors. The two go hand in hand. Freedom to develop individual creative talents is bestowed by the group. The individual in turn is accountable to the group for the way in which he has expended his efforts. Coöperation enters into social action when leaders study, think, and work creatively with their fellow men to improve community resources. It is each person working, contributing, and sharing with others that exemplifies democracy in action.

Education Should Be for All the People

Education in the community should be for all the people, not just pupils of the elementary and secondary school. The common expression that education is for children should be modified to education for all. Adult education should be an integral part of public-school offerings entitled to substantial support from public-school funds. Providing education for everyone has been advocated for years, but the program of expansion has been slow and faltering compared to its infinite possibilities. In

spite of current emphasis upon community schools, there is still a prevalent belief that public education should end with the twelfth grade.

Education is needed today from birth to senescence; intellectual growth is a never-ending process. One reason post-high-school work has received so little attention is that administrators and teachers have been indifferent to the furtherance of an all-community program of study and learning. Even administrators and teachers think that public education should be for children at certain age levels. The community-school concept of education is still in the incipient stages of development. How far a community program of education can be extended is limited only by the imagination and perception of educational leaders. Adult programs of study and learning are still in their infancy. By projecting thinking into the distant future some such picture as the following might unfold.

Study groups might be organized for pregnant women and the continuum of educational experiences extended from the birth of the child to the age of senility. When education is construed to mean the development of talents in people and the reconstruction of the culture in which they live, it has no end except more education. Any course or discussion group that helps people further their goals in life is appropriate as a public-school offering. Keeping in step with new developments in the social, political, and economic world requires constant study, learning, and adaptations in daily living for those engaged in some branch of this work. The school might assume responsibility for furthering or at least helping to coordinate all education in the community. Resource people from outside the community, such as college instructors and representatives of state agencies, should be used for some instruction. Local talent, other than the professional staff, should teach when they are better informed than their neighbors. In many courses a team of staff members, resource people, and lay citizens should provide the teaching services. These three groups—staff members,



lay citizens, and resource people—should teach the work as a unit, or divide the instructional duties, or perhaps merely plan the content of program offerings. In any case there should be active coöperation by teachers, lay citizens, and resource people.

In the ideal school—if thinking may be projected into the future—all the people would have the opportunity of planning, all would have the privilege of learning, all would be invited to participate actively in furthering the community program of education. Professional teachers might instruct the people; the people might teach each other; and in many instances they might instruct the professional teachers. Especially might this be true when the topics for study concerned problems in community life. In this true community school, then, everyone would be teaching, everyone would be learning, everyone would be growing intellectually.

Social Education Should Be Emphasized

In the new community school there should be much more emphasis upon social education. Living during a social revolution calls for a revolutionary program of education. Above everything else, boys and girls should develop a philosophy of life so that they will have reference values when they are confused or doubtful about what is good or bad in a community situation. Many people today participate in fruitless discussion, research, and experimentation because they do not understand the moral and cultural backgrounds of education. Not only should more attention be given to general education, but the content and methods of teaching should be closely scrutinized for strength and weaknesses. A striking weakness of present-day instruction is that teachers and students keep out of range of the social problems they are studying. They observe a problem, they discuss a problem, but they do little if anything to help solve a problem.

Being constantly confronted with conflicting social issues is

frustrating, especially when it is impossible to take action to eliminate disturbing factors in a situation. The realization that life is different from socially accepted standards causes many kinds of reaction. Some people become cynical, others discard certain moral values, and still others live in a high state of emotional tension because their behavior is different from ideals they have always accepted.

To reëducate people effectively will require more than mere knowledge of social problems. Active participation in the solution of problems is the best means of developing behavior patterns. Especially is this true when the participation is conducted on a peer relationship basis in which each person has an opportunity to influence the programs adopted. As the late Kurt Lewin so clearly pointed out:

Re-education is frequently in danger of reaching only the official system of values, the level of verbal expression and not of conduct; it may result in merely heightening the discrepancy between the super-ego (the way I ought to feel) and the ego (the way I really feel), and thus give the individual a bad conscience. Such a discrepancy leads to a state of high emotional tension but seldom to correct conduct. It may postpone transgressions but is likely to make transgressions more violent when they occur.

A factor of great importance in bringing about a change in sentiment is the degree to which the individual becomes actively involved in the problem. Lacking this involvement, no objective fact is likely to reach the status of a fact for the individual concerned and therefore influence his social conduct. (11)

In the community-school program of education there is an overarching purpose that should take precedence over all purposes. That goal is the socialization of individuals. In striving to improve natural resources, human resources, and social organizations within the community, each daily act performed should be in harmony with the most desirable forms of democratic social relationships. As John Dewey so succinctly stated: "Unless democratic habits of thought and action are part of the fiber of people, political democracy is insecure" (3).

A culture for the most part is formed and transmitted to others not by what is studied in schools or even what is read in publications but by the myriad of daily performances and observances and limitations. How people serve and act in communities determines the larger social structure. It is not what people know and glibly talk about that makes their character. Behavior patterns are established through action.

Developing democratically socialized people in no way means that the individual loses distinctive qualities as a person. The relationship between the individual and the group is such that the individual contributes to the group and the group in turn helps to develop unique characteristics in the individual. To think of an individual maturing into a wholesome person separate and apart from others is one of the most harmful misconceptions that is registered in the minds of people today. The individual learns from a group irrespective of the wishes of parents, teachers, or other people. No person can escape the influence of other human beings. To a great extent it is the group that determines what the individual will see, think, believe, and do.

Approaching the relationship from the reverse point of view, the individual achieves social adjustment as he contributes to the welfare of others. Contributing to the welfare of others helps to fashion the personality and to develop the finer characteristics of the individual. In other words, the group helps the individual at the same time that the individual is helping himself—and the way he best helps himself is to contribute to the welfare of his associates.

The nuances of this social relationship are extremely significant from the viewpoint of a democratic society. Satisfaction in life and happiness and contentment come from desirable social interaction with one's fellow men. Unity is born from cooperation, not from unfriendly competition. Trying to excel and defeat others tends to bring cleavages, not fellowship. Perhaps

this point can be further emphasized and clarified by quoting from another writer:

Each of us is thus both one with his fellows and essentially distinct from them. Moreover, individual health as well as social well-being seems conditioned upon maintaining a delicate balance between this unity and difference. Isolate the individual from emotional identity with his fellows and he either withers and dies or grows into ugly proportions. Permit the social group to erase the distinctive qualities of individuals, and society too becomes either a monster or degenerates into dull uniformity. In stressing that man does not live unto himself alone, we reject both rugged individualism and totalitarianism. (26)

Positive Attitude Toward Change Should Be Developed

There can be little purpose in dwelling longer on present-day conflicts, tensions, and social issues other than to say that the topics which have been discussed are merely typical of changes that have occurred. Significant indexes of public attitudes are seen in the fact that in the past three decades there have been three attempts to reorganize governmental structures: (1) in Europe following the fascist pattern, (2) in Russia with communism as its model, and (3) in Great Britain where socialism is now operating on a trial basis. Truly the last few decades have been periods of social revolution.

Life in a period when social change assumes revolutionary proportions calls for people of courage, energy, and imagination. The inevitability of change must be understood. The danger of following medieval mores in the face of modern crises must be recognized by all. Tradition as well as new ways of behaving can cause dislocations. The use of the scientific method must be developed and validated far beyond the present utilization of science and rationalism.

How to induce change in people so that they will willingly discard medieval customs and beliefs is the challenging goal of education today. It is indeed a difficult and serious task for educational leaders. Unless steps are taken to educate people so

that they will manage public affairs by intelligent discussion rather than pressure-group techniques the privileges of democracy may defeat the ends of a free society.

QUESTIONS

1. Has there been an increase in institutional control since agrarian days? Is community control the same today as it was in agrarian days? What is the relationship between community control and institutional control?
2. What is the nature of competition and coöperation in present-day society? What should be the place of competition and coöperation in present-day society?
3. How have inventions changed the attitudes and value concepts of people in your community? In what respects do you feel that inventions have brought about a higher quality of living?
4. How many pressure groups are there in your community? Do you have friends or relatives who belong to such groups? Do you belong to a pressure group?
5. Do people in your community have prejudices against other people? What causes people to have prejudices? How can prejudices be eliminated?

PROBLEM

Assuming the continuation of democratic trends, what kind of society may be anticipated fifty years from now? Describe in broad outline the kind of educational system such a society would require.

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II

Educational Leadership in a Free Society

Democracy is not a tight little system of political control. Democracy is not perpetuated by suppressing or liquidating dissident ideas, individuals, and factions. Democracy is a free, creative system of thought and living. Political control in this system exists as an aspect of a total way of life rather than as a dominating phenomenon within a way of life. In a free society the individual finds the maximum amount of latitude, limited only by the rights, privileges, and legitimate activities of other individuals. In free societies much is made of equality as a social concept. Jefferson's extreme statement, "All men are created free and equal," is more often quoted and endorsed than denied.

Any treatment of human leadership must recognize that the concepts and role of leadership differ greatly as between free and nonfree societies. The value bases for free and nonfree societies are not only dissimilar, they are in opposition. For instance, in a free society it is expected that men will be different. They are encouraged to be different, to be creative, and to exemplify originality in the way they work and live.

Strikingly at variance is the point of view in a nonfree society.

Here men are molded to a set state pattern. All the people are expected to have the same ideals, beliefs, attitudes, and to abide by established rules of conduct. Believe! Obey! Fight! These were the key words of the fascist code. To press the point further, in a free society all institutions and services receive sustained support because they contribute to the welfare of the individual. In a nonfree society the welfare of the state comes first. All energies are bent toward furtherance of the state. Human life is cheap and expendable. Men who cannot pull their own weight or who oppose those in control have no rights, not even the right to live. The role of the individual in a society with a Führer is conceived very differently from the role of the individual in a free, self-governing society. No one ever made the distinction any clearer than did Adolf Hitler:

Nothing is possible unless one will commands, a will which has to be obeyed by others, beginning at the top and ending only at the very bottom. . . .

We must train our people so that whenever someone has been appointed to command, the others will recognize it as their duty to obey him, for it can happen that an hour later they will be called upon to command, and they can do it then only if others in turn obey. This is the expression of an authoritarian state—not of a weak, babbling democracy—of an authoritarian state where everyone is proud to obey, because he knows: I will likewise be obeyed when I must take command. (17)

There is still another thought on dictatorships that should be mentioned to clarify confusion with respect to the beliefs of a particular society. Adolf Hitler, it is to be noted, boldly stated his point of view and ardently defended it. There have been dictators who have been a bit more subtle in their approach, especially in the beginning stages of gaining control. Napoleon, in the early part of his reign espoused the slogans of liberty, equality, and fraternity. They were mere words to him but they were ideals to the people of France. Napoleon cleverly led the people to believe that he was helping them achieve the ideals they held most sacred. The end results, however, were similar to those under Hitler. In other words, what people profess to

believe in and what they live by may be in contradiction. A potential dictator in America could have little hope of gaining control unless he crept in under the guise of preserving or furthering the American way of life. Any other approach, in all likelihood, would be too radical for present-day Americans to accept. So, in reality, existing regimes range from those that have many earmarks of democracy to those that are essentially totalitarian in nature. In between the extremes are regimes that are moving either left or right and which contain many of the elements of both democracy and totalitarianism.

To determine what a government or people really believes, it is necessary to examine practices in everyday life. It is easy to be misled by propaganda, direct and indirect, that is diffused for public consumption. What a society is can be judged by the place and function of the individuals in it. Society after all is composed of individuals. It takes human beings to make the larger community. The certain test of the value base of any society is revealed by the role in which individuals are cast in its day-by-day operations. How people act and react toward one another is the real criterion that discloses what a society evaluates as desirable and undesirable behavior in its constituency.

CREATIVE LEADERSHIP IS A DEMOCRATIC IDEAL

Just as the individual varies as between free and nonfree societies, so does the leadership role. Leadership under these two fundamental forms of government must be conceived differently because the bases from which they originate are in direct contradiction. The discussion comes now to these two significant and closely related questions: What is the concept of leadership which we find embedded in democratic idealism? Is the concept of "the leader" in accordance with democratic idealism? These questions must be faced.

Since the social order of the free society is so closely identified with the individual, it might be well to approach an analysis of leadership by examining the individual in his social and

governmental role of citizen. Here the highly developed culture of civilized man demands a role not required of primitive man. Conditions in agrarian days, when people moved as soon as they could hear their neighbor's shotgun, called for a different kind of leadership from that which is needed today. In the present social scene individuals, states, and nations are interdependent as they have never been before. Modern man is not in a position to stand alone as were his pioneer forefathers of frontier times. In fact, the leadership role of man as citizen is constantly changing with the changing social and economic structure. Citizenship has become a profession in the United States—at least so says democratic idealism.

There is need for change in all the varied and numerous life activities that characterize a culture group in motion. Only dynamic living can give the highly developed vertebrate called *Homo sapiens* a gambling chance of survival. The need for a new and more active kind of citizenship is here. There have been many changes in leadership activity since the turn of the century, but the speed of change has not been rapid enough. Problems in our culture demand a more intelligent and dynamic citizenship.

Thrusting through from time to time is the idea of creative or constructive citizenship; but as with many other problems in social living, the path toward such a goal is strewn with barriers and hindrances. For instance, language usage is overburdened with servile concepts of citizenship. There are references to loyalty that mean loyalty to those in control rather than to an ideal. Coöperation often means subservience to the will of another person. At the present time such concepts as obeying the law and getting out the vote are ever present and ever mingling with the more rational process of planning—governmental planning, community planning, curriculum planning, and the like. All these activities represent meaningful gradations of citizenship. And in view of the present frailties of human beings all three are necessary. Yet obviously the time spent in urging peo-

ple to assume civic duties such as voting that they should assume as a natural responsibility, represents a drag upon the efficiency of society. Creative activity on the part of one and all more nearly approaches ideal civic behavior. In other words, the citizen who spends hours designing the future of his community is carrying on a more creative activity than the citizen who is brought to the polls and brought home again by the local ward heeler.

Perhaps the most insidiously harmful barriers are the commonplace contradictions exhibited by so many people. These contradictions are insidious and harmful because they are deep-seated and emotional in nature. Many men, when their fundamental beliefs are questioned, literally refuse to face reality in their thinking and behavior. Many people demand progress and in almost the same breath they passionately defend tradition—"What has been is best." There is the demand that young people should respect authority unquestioningly, yet parents want initiative developed in their children. Some people vehemently defend reactionary points of view—what was good enough for me is good enough for my children—but do not really wish to regress to conditions of a few decades ago. Much of the defense of tradition may arise from fear and a feeling of insecurity rather than from sincerity about a proposed program of action. Man is not consistent in his attitude toward change and progress.

The right to invent and try out new ideas is defended just as ardently by those who are faithful to "rugged individualism" as by those who wish to experiment with a new philosophy of living. The Curies, Edisons, Einsteins, Pasteurs, and Ketterings are respected and revered almost as highly as the military generals and statesmen of earlier days. Signs of the times seem to indicate that progress has been made toward a more creative and scientific-minded people. It should not be inferred, however, that citizenship activities in a democracy are now or ever will

be purely intellectual in nature. Man is an emotional being and any consideration of democratic behavior must take this factor into account.

WHAT IS DEMOCRATIC LEADERSHIP?

What is the nature of democratic leadership? What are the dynamics of a free society as contrasted with a nonfree society? Who gets things done and how? A clear-cut concept of leadership in a free world is needed to clarify the role of the individual and of group processes in that world.

Is the concept "the leader" still useful? The answer to this question is an unequivocal negative. In a free society the leader, as such, does not exist because leadership is diffused among all and is a characteristic of the citizen in action. Leadership is a mobile characteristic which flits from person to person according to the demands of the situation. With some oversimplification, it can be said that the leadership in a free society consists largely of the sum total of the creative activities of its active members—e.g., members of the civic planning association, members of boards of directors of corporations, and volunteer solicitors for the community chest—rather than the sum total of the activities of a group of titular leaders. Or possibly this merely shows more clearly the range of leadership in a self-governing culture group. In any event, leadership is something that concerns everybody and is the function of everyone in a free society. The common man is in the leadership business in a very real sense. The most unimportant man may ally himself with other little men to deny the designs of the great titular leaders of the moment and change the course of history thereby. The history of the League of Nations in the United States is an outstanding example of that possibility. When the people refused to accept a foreign policy based on the League of Nations they stripped Wilson, a status leader, of his power. The concept "leadership" on the contrary takes on a different

meaning from that which the language gives it. It is an essential concept in setting up any theory of social dynamics or any theory, plan, and practice for the democratic administration of man's institutions and activities. As was indicated before, the leadership act skips about in any truly coöperative situation. The titular leader remains in the picture, but his role is not that of dictating programs but rather that of evolving programs. The leader is a man who can release energy in other men; and this is true in the commercial world, in community life, in the educational profession, or in any other area in a democracy that one might choose to select. It is the failure to understand the nature of this shift that is causing many difficulties in the field of human relations. People want more freedom as they increasingly gain freedom. In some instances their demands seem to be a bit unreasonable. People are demanding rights without any thought of accompanying responsibilities. Whether their demands are just is not a question that can be discussed at this point. The fact is mentioned to show that people's attitudes are not the same as they were a few decades ago. The "boss" concept in which workmen deferentially acquiesced at the turn of the century is no longer acceptable to employees. The purpose of leadership today is to free energy, not to curb it. The person who can develop initiative and creative talents in others commands the respect of his fellow workers. People are operating as leaders in this period of economic and social adjustment when they reduce friction, remove barriers, dissipate emotional tension, develop confidence, and light the spark of imagination in their fellow workers. This is the content of leadership for today and the immediate tomorrow.

Communities consist not only of individuals but also of agencies and institutions of various kinds. These agencies and institutions operate sometimes coöperatively and sometimes independently. Democracy should not be construed to mean that independent action is undesirable. The result of the efforts of socially desirable institutions is the meeting of the needs of the

individuals who live in a given community. The same principle applies on a state, national, or international level.

Democracy Needs No Followers

Leadership and citizenship are related concepts. In a truly democratic state everyone is a leader. To make real progress in democratic operation, it seems apparent that the first step is to erase from the minds of people the militaristic concept of leaders and followers. People talk democracy, but resident in their thinking is the leadership and followership concept of a totalitarian philosophy. Little progress can be achieved in developing universal creative ability until men have faith that all normal people have potential creative talents. To a great extent the road block to democratic operation is not a shortage of skill or knowledge, but a lack of faith in the growth possibilities of others.

When there is one leader and many followers the structure is a hierarchical, authoritative pattern of living. When there are numerous leaders and many followers the system favors an oligarchical form of government. When everyone leads and everyone follows, the pattern can be considered to be truly democratic.

This concept does not preclude individual leadership in many fields. Exercising leadership in more than one field is for the best interests of individuals and for the society in which they live. Men with outstanding ability may be out in front in many activities and still there will be areas for others to exercise individual initiative and resourcefulness. In fact, the possibilities for people to be inventive and to demonstrate ability in their chosen fields is limitless. The more leadership exercised by people the greater the chance for challenging leadership situations to emerge. Opportunities for individuals to forge ahead into positions of responsibility multiply as more and more people permit others to assume full responsibility. Leadership by all fosters a dynamic commonwealth—one in which everyone is

thinking, creating, and moving forward in his chosen field of work. Instead of one mind or a few minds solving problems, millions of minds are solving problems.

Such a system of living does not rule out the following of orders in crisis situations. People who have learned to think and to be creative in their own right have little difficulty in following instructions when immediate action is necessary. The thinking individual is the best-qualified person to act in either a democratic or an authoritarian setting. When orders go astray, people who have learned to exercise initiative are much better qualified to move on their own because that is the way they always have lived.

It is assumed in this presentation that everybody must learn about leadership and become skilled in its application. This is in distinct contrast to the assumptions behind an earlier version of our democratic idealism when it was believed that if we had well-prepared and honest city managers, school superintendents, state officials, and ministers and teachers, most of society's ills would disappear. It is now recognized that that hope was unrealistic and was based upon concepts of leadership and social process that do not square with the basic principles of democracy. Should the public schools actually attempt to educate for leadership or creative citizenship, this society's chance for survival would be greatly enhanced.

MANIPULATIVE LEADERSHIP IS PSEUDO-DEMOCRATIC

Perhaps the most debased form of democratic behavior is manipulation as typified by administrators who pull people around like puppets on a string, causing them methodically to give a performance the administrator has planned in advance. As stated previously, almost all autocratic leaders at the present time disguise their dominant behavior characteristics under the mantle of democratic administration.

The manipulative administrator uses a variety of techniques. He often makes known his desires and then appoints a com-

mittee to pass on his proposals. The committee in turn, without thought or discussion, automatically endorses the administrator's program. Staff members in this instance go through the motions of coöperative action, but the true democratic process is lacking because the cards have been stacked beforehand. This same administrator may call in a caucus of friends prior to a staff meeting to be assured of a united front and a majority vote on controversial issues. Another method is to reward those who are on the administrator's side in regard to certain issues and to refrain from rewarding those who are not.

Given a choice between the autocratic and the manipulative administrator, most people prefer the autocratic, for even the body feels degraded when one is forced to speak and act in direct opposition to one's sacred beliefs and feelings. Under the manipulative administrator inferiors not only follow orders, but they endorse, support, and take responsibility for orders. When the administrator issues the orders and takes responsibility for their effects there is less confusion, because the rights and responsibilities of all are, at least, clear. When the members of an organization not only are denied the right to their opinions but are compelled to support the administrator's opinions, and on occasion to guess what the administrator is thinking, the situation results in fear and anger and generates a certain degree of frustration. Even though staff members may not reveal their inward feelings, there are few, if any, who do not resent being pushed around like pawns on a chessboard.

In defense of the administrator it should be pointed out that responsibility is now so centered in the status leader that he is subject to censure for all mistakes made in the operations for which he is responsible. The public, as it is now minded, will not permit him to escape responsibility. In view of this fact, there is some justification for the administrator's wanting programs to follow certain channels of thinking and action. Moreover, people shouldered with a responsibility often are the best judges of what will work and be accepted, a fact frequently

overlooked by staff members. Responsibility is sobering. It brings men face to face with reality. Those who are inclined to criticize administrators should always remember that it is much easier to call the plays from the bleachers than from the coach's seat on the side lines. Many people advocate proposals for reforming administration which they quickly forget when they find themselves in an administrative position. In one sense the status leader is in a much better position to make decisions because he has an overall view of the entire administrative setting.

The solution to this problem hinges not on the status leader's disagreement with his personnel, but rather on the method he uses to relate himself to his personnel. When the administrator has to oppose the judgment of his staff, he is on much safer ground to put the facts before the group, tell them frankly about his proposed action, and then accept sole responsibility for his decision. People down through the ages have admired men with courage. The person who is confident and fearless in dangerous situations has enjoyed the esteem of his fellow man, even when his character would not justify veneration except from the point of view of intrepidity. Valiant effort always leaves a residue of respect in the minds of the people. Relying on subterfuge to gain ends, on the other hand, leaves a negative impression with people, because it stamps the administrator as a political conniver. Manipulative leadership must eventually be evaluated as, at best, a form of pseudo-democracy.

PERMISSIVE LEADERSHIP REPRESENTS PROGRESS TOWARD AN IDEAL

Permissive leadership is a difficult type of administration to classify, because it fails to fall neatly into any of the three popular categories of autocratic, democratic, or laissez-faire. It more nearly resembles the laissez-faire method of operation, although it is never quite that extreme. Many excellent programs have been developed under permissive leadership. Frequently more encouragement and support are given to programs under permissive than laissez-faire leadership because administrators of

this type may really want teachers to be out in front with novel techniques and procedures even at the risk of criticism. Especially is this true if the ideas are endorsed by state departments of public instruction, higher institutions of learning, or other influential educational groups. A number of permissive leaders sincerely desire to be affiliated with effective democratic practice.

The weakness of permissive leadership lies in its lack of co-ordination and coöperative effort. A school program needs singleness of purpose as well as diverse purposes, for when many individual projects are in operation simultaneously there may be lack of unity and cohesiveness in the program as a whole. A permissive plan of administration does permit individual experimentation, a cardinal virtue of democratic living, but staff members like to be part of a meaningful coöordinated effort whenever possible.

EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP SHOULD EXEMPLIFY THE DEMOCRATIC IDEAL

Educational leadership does not operate according to unique rules. The basic principles of democratic leadership have general application in a free society. The same rules apply in such fields as production, merchandising, and trade union activity as in education, and vice versa.

In recent years the phenomena of leadership have been studied by Harold Anderson, Kurt Lewin, and others as a basic phenomenon in the socialization of the individual and as a basic phenomenon in the teaching and learning process. There is a distinct trend toward studying the democratization of the classroom and of the administration of the school. The teachers in American schools are now showing leadership in these fields (8).

School administration, as an activity, has been so much concerned with internal problems such as the administration of pupil and faculty personnel that it has not yet developed any real

program for leadership education. Nor has it concerned itself, except in a few experimental centers, with finding and developing leaders from among the parents and other citizens. American education stands on the threshold of this movement with a beginning literature, a beginning practice, and a pioneer spirit on the part of a few—no more.

Every Professional Educator Has Many Leadership Roles

In applying the principles of leadership to education it is seldom recognized that the entire teaching staff is a highly selected, highly educated group when compared with most other groups of people. While education for leadership has not been part of the teacher education curriculum in any specific sense, teachers are, in fact, titular leaders of society, having been chosen by a number of selective processes and given a specialized form of education. Certainly the demonstrations of leadership by classroom teachers in this country are convincing enough to show that any teacher may through service become very important in a community. The present tendency to speak of the leaders in a school system as certain people who do not teach in classrooms is certainly to be deplored and it should be corrected. Recent trends in the field of school-community relations present proof that the leadership roles played by teachers are of no mean proportions.

Teachers then have a dual role of leadership and a dual problem of leadership. The teacher is automatically considered a titular leader of society by most members of the community. At the same time in his relations with other teachers and his administrators there exists a special problem of democratizing relationships. Up to 1930 there was a steady tendency toward strengthening the hands of the administration and precisely channeling the line authority in public-school systems. The dislocations caused by the great economic depression of the 1930's brought about a changed attitude on the part of teachers and a new trend toward democratizing the internal relations in the

school system. Progress has been made in the last twenty years, but teacher participation in administration is still carried on in a desultory manner. As the bonds are further loosened, there will come a real test of the capacity of the typical teacher to perform leadership functions. It is already evident, however, that the nature of teacher education is such that the teacher finds himself quite unprepared in the field of leadership.

Principals, instructional specialists, and superintendents are titular leaders of considerable importance and they are in a position to influence the dynamics of any society very materially. Again, the preparatory program for these people seems to be altogether inadequate. For instance, very few schools of education include technical courses in school-community relations, effects of group situations, leadership development or community analysis. Those that do have such courses still lack a well-organized program of experiencing and conditioning in this field. To refer to these specialized courses does not imply that specialized courses alone would be adequate. A basic technical element in preparing persons for the education profession has to do with the teaching-learning processes. Teachers, specialists, and administrators all should be firmly grounded in social psychology. Professional personnel should see the relationship of the principles of psychology to leadership activity, individual motivation, and the very intricate motivations that occur in group interaction. Teachers, specialists, and administrators should be more than conversant with the fundamental drives in people. They should have such mastery in this field of human activity that they should be able to discern quickly and accurately people's reactions to the various aspects of the school-community environment. What psychology has learned about man in his relations to others should be a tool in the kit of every public-school official.

Present practice in American schools shows clearly that something is wrong. In the first place, the inadequately prepared teacher referred to above finds himself called upon to perform

all sorts of leadership functions. Unfortunately, sitting through a certain number of courses or amassing a certain number of college credit hours which have little to do with leadership does not help the teacher who is employed by a school district that is involved in a vicious community conflict. Thus, the teacher either fails or learns about the facts of life the hard way. Waller (23), Cook (7), Greenhoe (12), Trout (22), and Koopman (2:78-100) have documented both the types of situations which teachers must face and the inadequacies of teachers in these situations.

Not only is the teacher handicapped by lack of preparation but the administrators and staff specialists are also handicapped. In general, the administrative staff springs from the teaching ranks and seldom takes the remedial courses necessary to correct the deficiencies referred to. Often such specialists have worked out a rough-and-tumble competitive selfish way of meeting new situations and they spend their professional lives protecting themselves rather than building programs. There is a widespread belief on the educational frontier that school-community relations must be quickly and systematically improved if education is to meet the challenges of the atomic age.

THE COMMUNITY-SCHOOL THEORY IS BASED ON THE LEADERSHIP CONCEPT

To clarify the implications of the newer concepts of leadership for education, it may help to consider leadership in the community-school situation. Here is found the microcosm of educational organization. In any community there exist all the problems and processes of social living. Policy making, coöperation between agencies, and coöperation between administrators and teachers and parents are common phenomena and represent the processes by which the individual is developed into a citizen-leader. Hence leadership is required in every community and finds adequate scope for its expression.

What the community school needs is a theory, structure, and program. The theory suggested in this chapter is the one stated earlier, namely, *that creative citizenship and social leadership are functionally related and that everybody must be educated in leadership*. Tight organizational channeling, overuse of the line principle in administration, teachers being required to criticize only *through channels*, formal curricula based on the assumption that education consists of mastering subject matter, the interpreting of parent interest as interference, and jealousy of administrative prerogatives are practices that should be condemned. The kind of structure that would enhance leadership is a simple series of committees or groups concerned with the most common problems and functions and tied together with some kind of coördinating machinery (14). The structure should permit participation in the leadership role by every person who can be motivated to take an interest in educational affairs. The school with a thousand children should have a leadership organization that permits twelve or thirteen hundred families to function through it. A secondary school with five hundred children should have internal self-governing machinery that permits five hundred children and many more parents to function through it as a means of learning self-government.

The program for leadership should be essentially the community's citizenship education program. It should be all-inclusive, should deal with all functions of living, and should be headed by sympathetic persons who have at least the minimal amount of preparation for leadership. The program should always be centered on increasing the possibility of good living in the community. It should shun specialized learning activities that have no meaning to the learners, and it should deal with the earthy realities of the community, whether these be better schools, better pigs, better pig iron, or cleaner restaurants. Any community school can quickly inventory noxious conditions and unmet needs and derive from them the cues for a program of develop-

ment that will tax its citizenry and leadership material to the utmost. This, in brief, is the theory.

The Community School Must Invent a Coöperative Structure

The community school will first of all recognize that urban planning, land utilization, zoning, and educational planning are all part of a unitary larger whole. These activities should be recognized in community planning. Consequently laymen and professionals concerned with education will find their places in community planning activities and community organization.

The overall planning bodies such as city councils, city planning authorities, regional planning authorities, and extralegal councils should all receive the support of the community school. In fact, the school should provide much of the dynamic leadership for the activities of these bodies.

Within the overall structure, however, the community school will need its own machinery. It has its own set of community relations and services to think about and to be responsible for. Citizens' committees, survey and evaluative committees, committees to encourage certain educational developments are all necessary for the coöperative structure of the community school. Today the country teems with examples of coöperative structure even though the movement is new.

The Community School Needs an Internal Structure

The school is also in a sense a community and hence it has its own internal structure. That structure merges with the community structure but still has its own identity. In addition to the structure designed to deal with external relations previously referred to, the school requires an adequate faculty organization to deal with technical problems such as research, curriculum development, and self-government. The students in turn need their structure of committees and councils to care for the administration of learning projects, classrooms, and student bodies.

MUCH CONFUSION EXISTS AS TO THE NATURE OF
DEMOCRATIC EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Progress cannot be achieved in educational practice so long as there are erroneous opinions of what is good educational practice. There appear to be many inaccurate conceptions of good democratic educational leadership. It seems apparent that the first step in the development of better coöperative action in the future is to clarify thinking on what is good and bad democratic action in the present. No attempt will be made to point out all or even a large number of these misconceptions, for the list might be endless. Only those will be described that seem to need special consideration.

The Dynamic Leader Concept Is a Threat

Visualizing the superior democratic administrator as a person who leads people by the strength of his personality is perhaps the most prevalent misconception today. In spite of the fact that America has had a democratic form of government for more than one hundred and fifty years, people still conceive of the good leader as one who uses the whip of authority, or, at best, persuades and sways people through emotional appeals. Such a deep-rooted fallacy in people's thinking is a serious block in the development of a more enlightened point of view on real educational leadership. When people accept such a viewpoint, it means that they are lending encouragement to the development of totalitarian practices in a democratic state. It is not what people say, but what they do, that determines the kind of society they will have in the future. If the democratic way of life is to survive and improve, people have to believe and to act in a democratic fashion in all the numerous and varied details of everyday behavior. Blindly following a few leaders is in direct contradiction to the principals of democratic government.

The dynamic leader also is in danger of becoming a victim of his own practices. People may momentarily be captivated by

other words, structure is often a basic cause for misunderstanding and conflict among teachers and administrators.

One of the most significant misconceptions today is the point of view expressed by many professional staffs on the making of decisions. Many teachers fervently believe that decisions should be made entirely by the staff and not by the administrator. In a democratic state the final power rests with the people and they in turn delegate this power to certain representatives such as their Congressman, mayor, city manager, or superintendent of schools. These officials are responsible and accountable to the people for programs sponsored in behalf of the people. There is no way they can completely escape this responsibility.

An old adage states that when everybody is responsible, nobody is responsible. There is more truth than fiction in this statement. When a group makes a decision it is extremely difficult to fix responsibility. Such questions as these frequently arise: Did all members of the group agree to the decision? Did one member influence the thinking of the other members? Were pressure methods used to reach the decision? How can individuals freely communicate with a group when they are in basic disagreement with a decision? It should also be noted that a group usually assigns responsibility to individual members for certain phases of the general program. As the present structure now operates, most groups either cannot, or as a rule will not, handle the various details of administration.

There is a common belief that a group will be more honest and reliable in its judgment than a single person, but there are few if any facts to support such a generalization. There is little evidence, if any, to show that vested interest groups are more magnanimous in their outlook than individuals. When a group becomes a powerful pressure group it frequently is very inconsiderate of the feelings and opinions of others.

That people who are affected by a decision should have a chance to influence that decision is not being questioned, nor are other principles in democratic operation. Where possible,

the administrator should encourage teachers and groups of teachers to assume responsibility for individual programs and, likewise, encourage the public to judge the effectiveness of these programs. More and more freedom and responsibility should be given to teachers—nor should teachers hesitate to demand such freedom and responsibility.

When teachers have unrestricted freedom to express a point of view and to criticize the point of view expressed by administrative officials, there is little danger that superintendents and principals will persistently overrule the judgment of the staff. The appeal for more democracy in education should be concerned primarily with the process of working, not with the authority for making decisions. When the process functions successfully, authority becomes increasingly of less importance. If the democratic method of operation were perfect in every respect, the power of one individual over another would be reduced to a minimum, because the force of public opinion would limit the authority of any one person or group to a minimum.

The Need for Quick Decisions Is Overstressed

Another common fallacy in administration is that there is need for a lot of quick decisions. Many executives feel they are efficient when they issue orders in rapid-fire manner, and inefficient when they delay action on important issues. Quick decisions may be poor decisions; hasty action may indicate little thinking in advance. It should be observed that such practices are in direct contrast to the methods of science. The scientist checks facts and carefully tests proposed actions before announcing a decision; a correct decision, not a fast decision, is the watchword of the scientist.

There is, of course, need for quick decisions in the case of emergencies. There are occasions when the administrator dares not delay. To call a committee meeting or conference to settle a problem might enhance a danger rather than alleviate it. When such a situation occurs the executive should take decisive

his aggressive action, only later to have their ardor cool when the emotional excitement has died down. The administrator who controls the destiny of others is in danger of being beguiled with visions of grandeur. He covets power over people and almost inevitably he tries to bring more and more people under his overarching plan of domination. Having power over people is like a drug—the more the power is exercised, the more it is desired.

Under a dominating leader, the goals to be achieved are the leader's goals, and not the people's. At least this is true in the majority of instances. Such a leader fails to see that seeds must germinate before there can be a harvest, that people have to learn before they can understand, that an enduring program must belong to the people and become identified as theirs, or at least partially theirs. The success of a program in a community depends upon how thoroughly people accept, endorse, and support it. When other abilities are equal, people prefer to be associated with leaders who are honest, reliable, and warm in their affection toward their fellow men. The administrator who is forever trying to move pupils, teachers, and citizens before they are ready for action is usually the one who finds himself moving from position to position in the state administrative system. Dynamic behavior may be effective with people in the early stages of administrative work, but its influence is seldom lasting over a long period of time.

Management Often Becomes a Goal

Too many board members and people still feel that good administration is efficient business management and little more, although the concept is not as prevalent today as a few years ago. Increasingly, board members and individuals are becoming interested in the instructional program and in the role of the administrator in furthering such programs in school and community life. People are beginning to see that educational leadership should come first and that efficient business management,

building construction and maintenance, and all the other mechanical features of administration should be further down the line in importance.

Administrators tend to do the things that pay dividends. Exercising real educational leadership has not brought abundant compensation from the viewpoint of tenure, salary, or prestige in a community. What the public wants is what administrators tend to give them, irrespective of what the school superintendent has learned in professional education courses. Board members and others who encourage administrative officers to devote their energies to noninstructional activities are indirectly impeding movements toward better teaching and learning and the improvement of educational leadership in the community. The recent broadened outlook of the public on educational leadership is encouraging, although it must be admitted that changes in attitudes are spotty and that considerable distance must be covered before administrative practice will be affected extensively.

It is encouraging to note that those who have paid the price of helping the public educate itself have found that the energy and time expended have more than paid off in increased good will, loyal school support, and even increased remuneration for services. One of the serious road blocks, then, in the development of better school administration is the misconception in the minds of lay citizens concerning what educational leadership is and what it should be in the future.

Teachers Often Demand Participation on an Irresponsible Basis

Much confusion concerning the theory of democratic administration arises from the fact that a structure which furthers democratic action has never been generally accepted. The critics of the traditional line-staff type of organization have not yet agreed upon a structure that would successfully take its place. Until such agreement is reached, an administrator must function as best he can with the traditional pattern of operation. In

other words, structure is often a basic cause for misunderstanding and conflict among teachers and administrators.

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There is, of course, need for quick decisions in the case of emergencies. There are occasions when the administrator dares not delay. To call a committee meeting or conference to settle a problem might enhance a danger rather than alleviate it. When such a situation occurs the executive should take decisive

action and hope that the authoritative ruling will meet with the approval of the group. A person must react quickly and courageously in dangerous situations. There is no other way to assure safety. The founders of our democratic government anticipated such dangers when they formulated the Constitution of the United States. In order to meet emergencies they gave the President command over all of the armed forces. Even a democratic way of life must be flexible enough to permit action when a crisis arises.

The belief that quick decisions reflect good executive action apparently is a cultural residue that has resulted because people have shown traditionally high respect and even reverence for business organization and military administration. This in no way is a criticism of military or business administration. In time of war, for example, an omnipresent emergency situation may exist and to meet the advance of the enemy a tactical unit will have to act and move on short notice. However, in modern military operations the emphasis on planning and coöperation has grown consistently and significantly. In his book, *Crusade in Europe*, Eisenhower says: "The planning process sometimes, as in the case of a vast triphibious undertaking, takes weeks and months. As a consequence these plans must be founded in fact and intelligent conclusion and, once made, they must be fixed and clear. Deviation from fundamental concepts is permissible only when significant changes in the situation compel it" (10).

But emergency decisions should not be too frequent in public-school administration. Educational administration has its own unique methods of operation, and rapid change is not a recommended practice in most cases. If the administrator or members of the staff get too far out in front of a community they may find that they are not in the same community. People have to learn a point of view before they really accept it. Skill in administration rests on the ability to foster such coöperative study and learning as will bring unity in thought and feeling, if not from all the people at least from the majority of them. In

other words, the art in school administration is not quick and aggressive action but timely and well-directed action.

DECISIONS SHOULD BE BASED ON SINCERE CONSENSUSES

Decisions in a democratic group are more statements of consensus than decrees by the administrator. Just as laws are enacted that express the will of the people, so are democratic decisions a statement of what the majority believes and accepts. Many decisions are anticipated a long time in advance. Even though some democratic decisions may appear to be impulsive, they are not, because people have foreseen pitfalls, they have been thinking about the weaknesses in contemplated programs of action. When a faculty has spent considerable time discussing and evaluating the strengths and danger points in educational practice, the ultimate decision may seem the natural step to be taken. Like a seed that has sprouted and borne fruit, the faculty has grown and matured to the stage where it is ripe for the decision.

No inference should be drawn here that the administrator should make all the decisions; in fact, the contrary is true. Administrators who approve all action programs may find that they have little opportunity to do anything else. Moreover, they may be passing judgment when they are not as well informed as those who are actively working with the task at hand. In a situation where the administrator spends considerable time issuing directives it is clear that responsibilities are not being assumed by other members of the staff. To attain efficiency, even in a small system, it is mandatory for people to accept and discharge responsibilities without referral to the administrator.

Administrators today find themselves enmeshed in importunate decision making either because they want to keep all the details under their control or because the system causes decisions to gravitate in their direction. On the first point there is little defense from the viewpoint of democratic idealism. Creative teachers should have freedom to move ahead on their own

initiative. On the second point, many factors can cause decisions to flow to the administrator's desk. The most apparent reason is that the rights and responsibilities of teachers have not been defined. Because teachers are not certain of their roles, they often pass decisions to the administrator. Another important reason why staff members do not assume responsibility grows out of the practice of some chief executives of overruling the staff members' judgment. Rather than take the risk of having their judgment reversed, the staff members tend to request the executive to submit his own judgment first.

There is still another phase of decision making that should be mentioned. Individual staff members may lack courage to render judgment on issues, a personality trait that in itself is demoralizing. There is nothing quite so debilitating as an ever-present fear of failure. How many people are in a constant state of tension because they are worried over decisions is a problem for speculation, but the number must be extremely large if daily observance of behavior may be taken as a basis for an opinion. Fear of making mistakes is often aroused by those in higher authoritative positions. If employees find that individual effort is criticized irrespective of fairness or justice, they will soon develop a deep-seated aversion toward initiating programs. The reversing of decisions by management also will keep a staff in a high state of tension. Encouraging the personnel to be resourceful in their own right produces the most effective results in the long run.

People need to have confidence in their ability to carry through work that is pleasing and satisfying to their associates. If individual pupils, teachers, and lay people lack this confidence, other members of the group should work with them until they are proficient in managing their own problems. Such a policy should free administrators and teachers, prevent confusion, and strengthen morale within the staff. Organizations are weakened more from lack of faith than from too much faith in the personnel. Most people will make strenuous efforts to live

up to the high standards expected of them. In other words, the way to foster and to nourish talent is to permit pupils, teachers, and laymen to assume responsibilities under good learning conditions.

QUESTIONS

1. In what ways are people in your community autocratic, democratic, or laissez-faire in their day-by-day behavior? What causes people to act and behave in a certain manner? How can communities help people to become more democratic?
2. How can the school program teach creativity (a) in social sciences, (b) in science, (c) in industrial arts? In what ways are present programs encouraging people to be creative? In what ways are they leading people away from creativity?
3. What contradictory behavior in relation to values do people manifest in your community? Do you have contradictions in your own personality pattern? What causes people to have contradictions?
4. What people in your community or school exercise leadership other than status leadership? Do the same people exercise leadership in all situations? Are people in your community encouraged to exercise leadership or discouraged from doing so?
5. Are there people in your school or community who demand rights without thinking of their responsibilities? What causes people to be concerned about their rights? What makes people neglect their responsibilities?

PROBLEM

Make a chart of leadership behavior in people you know or people whom you have read about in biographies or other publications. Will the examples of leadership you have listed further the goals of a free society? Are you inclined to accept leadership characteristics that are undesirable from a social point of view?

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III

The Social Context of Educational Leadership

That the school is not an isolated organization, unrelated to other social groupings in our society, is now generally recognized. The key nature of the school's position and the intricacies of its interaction with many social groups, however, are not fully understood. The nature of modern social organization is such that the school inevitably is drawn into interaction with community groups, often because of its strategic position in the social network.

The school is the meeting ground for diverse racial, ethnic, cultural, and social class groups. Furthermore, directly or indirectly, school administrators and teachers frequently become enmeshed in the clique and congeniality groupings of the neighborhood or community. Likewise, it is not uncommon that neighborhood and community problems become problems of the school as well. Consequently, it is our objective to outline the nature and function of some of the more important social groups as they impinge upon the school administrator.

Sociologists tell us that the most important locality groupings affecting our lives, in order of intimacy, are the family, the clique or friendship group, the neighborhood, the community, and the region. Figure 1 depicts this situation schematically. To

each of these social groups the individual feels allegiance and a sense of belonging. In turn, each grouping has its impact upon the individual, shaping and molding him into a certain kind of personality. In a sense, each of these groupings is an educational institution. Contact with and participation in each one serves to "educate" and "acculturate" human raw material.

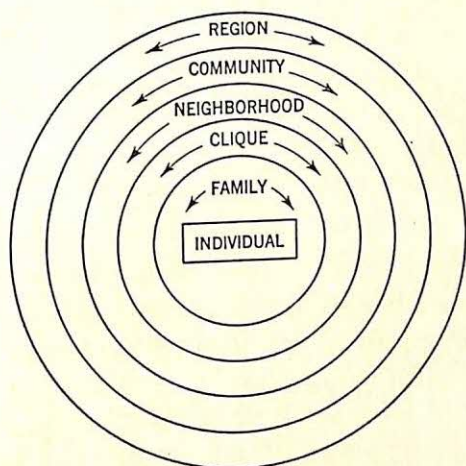


FIGURE 1. Schematic diagram showing the locality groups that have social significance for the individual. Note that these groups are arranged in order of decreasing intimacy. That is, the family is regarded as the most intimate group, followed by the clique, neighborhood, community, and region, in that order.

A great deal has been written about the family and its function of transforming the child into a civilized, acculturated adult. Although this function cannot be minimized, we must not forget that similar functions are served by the neighborhood, the community, and especially the clique or friendship groupings. Of the groups outlined in Figure 1, we have selected three for further discussion. These include the clique or friendship group, the neighborhood, and the community. In addition, the social class groups, since they cut across all of those in Figure 1, deserve special emphasis. Although these class groups are not locality groups, each of the locality groups shown in Figure 1 may be subclassified into various social class components.

THE CLIQUE OR FRIENDSHIP GROUP

Probably no social grouping in our society has been more generally ignored than has the small, informal friendship group. Partly because it is informally organized and partly because it is so widespread, few sociologists have analyzed it in a thoroughgoing fashion. As viewed here, a clique or friendship group is regarded as a small nonkinship group consisting of from two to about thirty persons in association and possessing a feeling of unity. As indicated in Figure 1, it ranks next to the family in terms of intimacy.

As was said previously, such groups are found everywhere. Every teacher is aware of their existence in the classroom and every administrator knows that special friendship groups exist among his employees. In the community they are often identified by such phrases as "the social set," "the bridge set," "the powers," and so forth.

While all of us have observed such clique or friendship groups, we normally take them for granted and fail to recognize some of the functions they perform. One function in particular needs to be stressed, namely, communication. News and gossip of all sorts travel by way of the more or less complex chains of human relations. News planted with the leader of one clique or friendship group, for example, finds its way quickly to the leader's immediate associates, then to the close friends of the leader's associates, and so on.

A fascinating study of how news is disseminated is reported by Delbert Miller (7). The morning following the announcement of the death of Franklin D. Roosevelt, Miller asked the following questions, among others, of a random sample of 143 Kent State students: "How did you first hear the news?" and "How many persons did you tell the news who had not yet heard about it?" Of the total sample, 122 individuals were informed of the President's death by word of mouth. Each one who heard by word of mouth told, on the average, one person who had not heard it. To be sure, the original news came by

radio, but only 16 students were informed in this manner. The original 16 thus activated an enormous amount of word-of-mouth communication.

Communication, in the sense used here, must be conceived broadly. Since the small friendship group is in close, intimate interaction, the setting is right for the transmission of ideas, attitudes, and social values. Next to the family and the school, more learning—communication of ideas—occurs in clique or friendship groups than in any other social group or institution. Changes in habits, attitudes, dress, and even manner of speaking may often be traced to influential friends and intimate associates.

School administrators, teachers, and other educational personnel should be cognizant of the small clique groupings not only in the classroom but in the community as well. The failure of many school-community programs may often be attributed to a lack of knowledge of the community's clique structure. Failure to "sell" a program to key figures or leaders in the community often means only partial success or perhaps complete failure of the program. Furthermore, school personnel often fail to make use of the communication system available in the elaborate network of community interpersonal relations.

A great deal may be learned about the informal clique groupings in an area through systematic observation. Somewhat more objective techniques developed by sociometricians, however, are now used to discover clique groupings and patterns of interpersonal relations. Although the exact statements vary and are adapted to the group under consideration, the so-called sociometric question seeks to ascertain the persons with whom one would like to associate. In school, children are frequently requested to name associates with whom they would like to sit. In some instances, one may ask directly, "What are the names of your nearest friends?"; in others, "With whom do you visit most frequently?" Such questions are used for all sorts of groups, ranging from the classroom itself to entire communities.

One of the early studies of informal organization was made

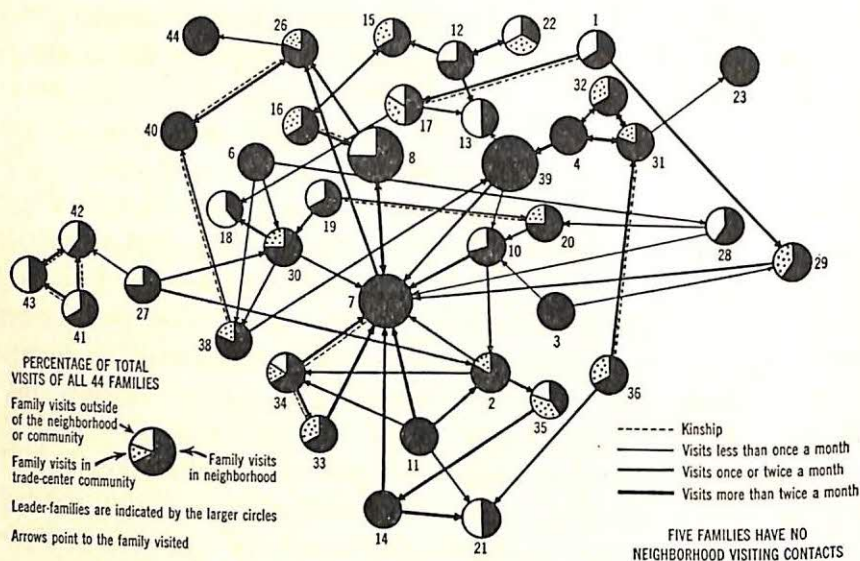


FIGURE 2. A sociogram showing interfamily visiting in Charles County, Maryland. A large number of small friendship groups may be observed in this neighborhood. Yet the network of relationships is relatively intricate and nearly all the families are tied into the neighborhood itself.

in Charles County, Maryland (6). In this small neighborhood called White Plains, 44 families were asked to tell with whom they visited, and how frequently. The results are depicted graphically in the sociogram shown in Figure 2. Each family is represented by a circle and the arrow points to the visited family. Such families as 7, 8, and 39 were chosen most frequently as desirable representatives to serve the interests of the neighborhood. They are designated by large circles since they were frequently contacted by other families and represent key families in the neighborhood. These are the families which must not be ignored in school-community programs of whatever kind.

THE NEIGHBORHOOD AND THE COMMUNITY

As shown in Figure 1, the neighborhood group follows the small informal group in terms of intimacy; immediately beyond

the neighborhood comes the community. Although many definitions of neighborhood and community are in vogue, there is insufficient space to present all of them and the arguments advanced for their use. Nor do we wish to spend time distinguishing in detail the neighborhood concept from that of the community. Both are significant locality groups in both rural and urban areas; each is composed of interacting persons among whom there is a feeling of solidarity. The neighborhood usually consists of fewer persons and is organized around incomplete services. In some instances, the one-room district school in the open country is a neighborhood agency. The community, on the other hand, is ordinarily larger, is frequently composed of neighborhoods, and is organized around relatively complete institutional services. It is frequently called a trade-center community. Most progressive school plans advocate that high schools be located in trade-center communities.

These locality groups are important to their members because within their geographic boundaries men utilize the services offered and live out their lives. Although the church and economic agencies are important, the school occupies an essential position. It is the agency which often brings about social solidarity in both the neighborhood and the community.

*Clique, Neighborhood, Community, and School as Illustrated by
Cohoctah, Michigan*

Many times the importance of social relationships is more easily seen in a crisis or conflict situation than in relationships which are "normal" or harmonious (8). The hamlet of Cohoctah in Livingston County, Michigan, lies between the trade centers of Byron to the north and Howell to the south. As is characteristic of many rural areas of the nation, a number of open-country schools in the section are not being used, the children being transported to larger centers. In this case, the students living in the northern districts are now transported to Byron and those in the southern district to Howell.

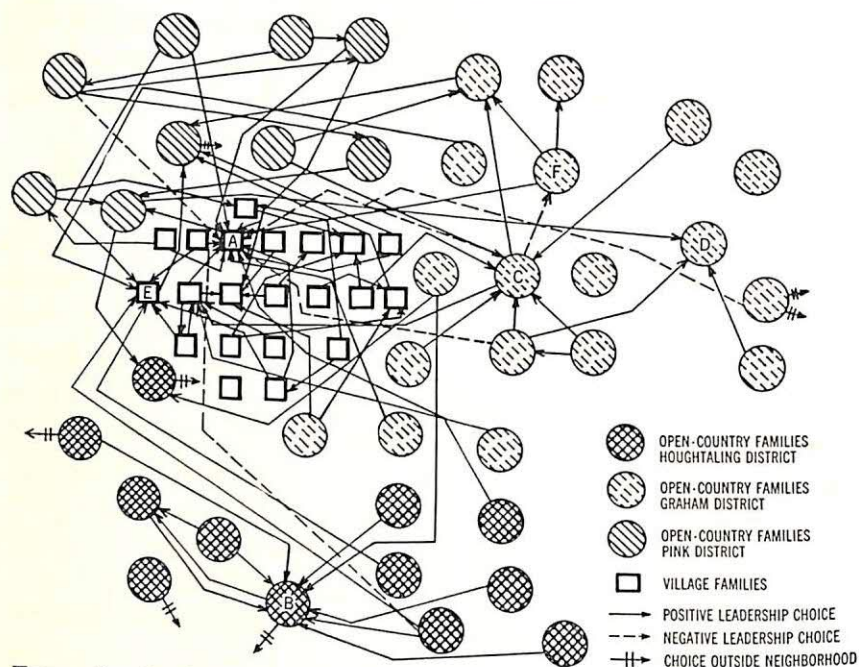


FIGURE 3. Leadership choices in the Cohoctah neighborhood in Livingston County, Michigan. Village families are separated from open-country families residing in three school districts. Note that a cleavage exists between the open-country and village families; also that large proportions of choices are made within the school district groups.

When the families in the hamlet and those in the surrounding service area were interviewed, many factors of concern to school administrators came to light. Each family was asked to indicate the person who knew the people and conditions of the locality best and would be most effective in putting over a new program. The choices of families, and in two cases the rejection of leaders, are depicted in Figure 3. From this figure it is clear that although the Houghtaling and Pink Districts are closed, they still constitute small groupings. Some residents in each district chose people in the hamlet of Cohoctah, and vice versa. However, residents of the one open-country district which still has a school, the Pink District, made few choices of the hamlet people; actually, there was only one voluntary rejection. Con-

siderable animosity was centered around a school controversy, for the hamlet leader, A, had been advocating a school reorganization program which would close the school in the Pink District. Most of the conflict centered about this difficulty.

For some years various agencies, among them the Agricultural Extension Service, have been attempting without success to organize various groups to support special programs in the Cohoctah area. A Grange was organized a few years ago, but after a short period it gradually withered. A Farm Bureau discussion group had a successful beginning but finally lapsed into inactivity. Although Cohoctah has a number of services—among them a hardware store, two groceries, a farm implement shop, a garage with repair service, a gasoline station, a feed mill, and a church—there are few organized social activities.

Cohoctah is typical of many of the small centers which would have been strong communities in the horse-and-buggy days. Hard-surfaced roads, automobiles, and modern chain stores have resulted in pulling apart Cohoctah's hinterland, causing it to decline in population and influence. The surrounding school-centered neighborhoods are disintegrating, as noted previously. Cohoctah is fighting for its existence and would like to strengthen its position by having the children in the Graham District in its school system. This has led to a bitter feud between the leaders in Cohoctah and the Graham District. Actually, both groups may eventually have to give up. However, any administrator working in the area would have to know the nature of these interpersonal relationships to be effective.

Extended Neighborhoods in Livingston County, Michigan

Through the use of an integration index based upon the number of services the residents of a locality support, the neighborhoods and surrounding areas combined, considered extended neighborhoods, were delineated for Livingston county, Michigan. These are described in Figure 4. It will be noted that much of the county lies outside the bounds of any neighborhood,

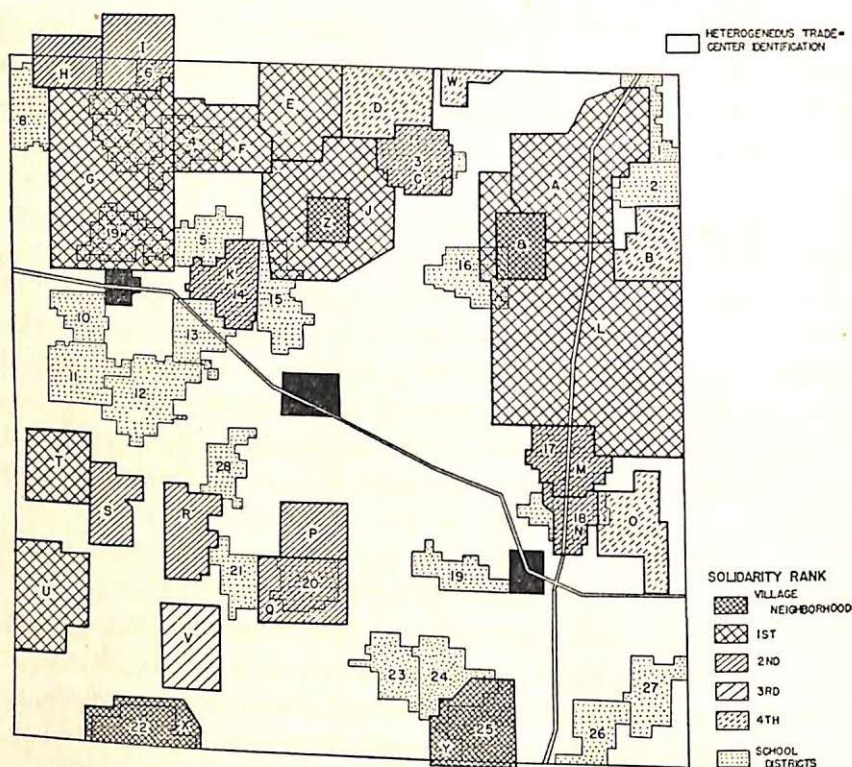


FIGURE 4. Active school districts and extended neighborhoods in Livingston County, Michigan. The Cohoctah neighborhood, referred to in Figure 3, is designated as E. The light areas lack definite identification with any locality grouping.

especially the part near the county seat, Howell, and the main highway extending from Lansing through Howell and on to Detroit. Most of these areas once had thriving neighborhoods with which the people identified themselves; but, as in the case of Houghtaling and Pink Districts of the Cohoctah neighborhood, this is no longer true.

School administrators who attempt to locate people with neighborhood consciousness and loyalty to support a neighborhood program will be disappointed if they encounter districts such as the light areas in Figure 4. Clique or friendship groupings do exist in most of these areas. These groupings are, how-

ever, not localized as they are in the strong neighborhood shown in Figure 2. The administrator, educator, or extension worker who wishes to put across a program in areas such as those in Figure 4 must rely upon friendship groupings which extend over a large area and overlap in a myriad of ways.

If the school occupies such a strategic position, the administrator is obliged to know thoroughly the community which he serves. He should be aware of community problems, needs, and desires. Furthermore, he should know something about the natural boundaries of his neighborhood or community. One of the best methods of becoming acquainted with a community is to learn about its people—their occupations, their racial or ethnic backgrounds, their organizations, and their interpersonal relations.

SOCIAL CLASSES

All neighborhoods and communities are composed of groups which are differentially powerful and which differentially command the respect of others. In some communities and neighborhoods these differences are slight; in others they are great. Sociologists refer to this condition as social class groupings or social class systems. Warner and Lunt write as follows: "By class is meant two or more orders of people who are believed to be, and are accordingly ranked by members of the community, in socially superior and inferior positions. Members of a class tend to marry within their own order, but the values of the society permit marriage up and down. A class system also provides that children are born into the same status as their parents. A class society distributes rights and privileges, duties and obligations, unequally among its inferior and superior grades" (11).

For many of us the significance of social classes is obscured and their existence is frequently denied because our class system is relatively open, because we are equalitarian-minded, or because we idealize the "solid middle class" and see few devia-

tions from this ideal among our associates. Nevertheless, each of the social classes has characteristic attitudes and values which find expression in behavior patterns. For this reason, it is essential that school administrators as well as teachers understand the social class backgrounds of their pupils.

One of the most penetrating studies of social class is the study

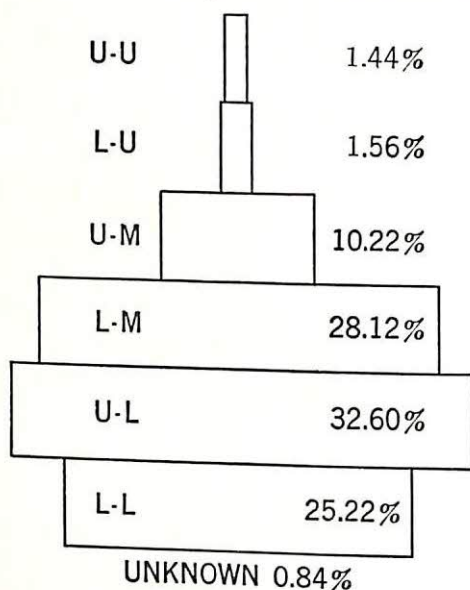


FIGURE 5. The social structure of Yankee City, a town of approximately 17,000 persons. More than four-fifths of the total population are classified as lower-middle, upper-lower, and lower-lower.

of Yankee City, a place of about 17,000 located in New England (11). After investigating every aspect of life in this community, the researchers thought that six social classes could be pretty distinctly separated. Each of the classes, they felt, was sufficiently unlike the others to permit the conclusion that Yankee City was composed of six "layers" of people. As indicated in Figure 5, only 1.44 percent could be considered "upper-upper"; an additional 1.56 percent was considered "lower-upper." The "upper-middle" class accounted for 10.22 percent of the total population and the "lower-middle" class embraced 28.12 per-

cent of the total. The largest segment of the population, 32.60 percent, was classed as "upper-lower" and 25.22 percent was considered "lower-lower." The remaining 0.84 percent could not be placed for one reason or another.

Although the class structure is certainly not everywhere identical with that of Yankee City, the characteristics of the classes found there are suggestive. Some of the differences may be pointed up by comparing the upper-upper with the lower-lower.

The upper-upper class in Yankee City was made up completely of persons of old American stock. They lived in the largest and most expensive homes in the best sections of the city. No occupation was represented by a member of this class which was not professional or proprietary in nature. As far as religion is concerned, the majority were Unitarians or Episcopalians. They sent their children to private preparatory schools, not to the local high school. As to their reading habits, they exhibited special interest in detective stories and in stories of courtship and family and man's fight against fate; less interest was shown in farce and humor, children's stories, books on social techniques, and scientific books. It is interesting to note that less than one-half of 1 percent of the total arrests in the city come from this social class, whereas the lower-lower class accounts for 65 percent of the total.

The lower-lower class, on the other hand, is composed of large proportions of non-Yankee ethnic stocks. All the Negroes, about nine-tenths of the Poles, seven-tenths of the Russians, and half of the Greeks are in this class. Most of those who work are in unskilled or semiskilled occupations. Many of the lower-lowers are employed in shoe and hat factories, and in transportation. This class has the largest proportion of small and ill-repaired homes. Significantly high proportions are affiliated with the Presbyterian, Methodist, and Baptist churches, one of the Congregational churches, and the two Catholic churches. Large numbers of the high-school children are enrolled in com-

mercial and general courses. As to reading habits, high percentages of the lower-lower class read children's books and low percentages read biography, history, and stories of courtship

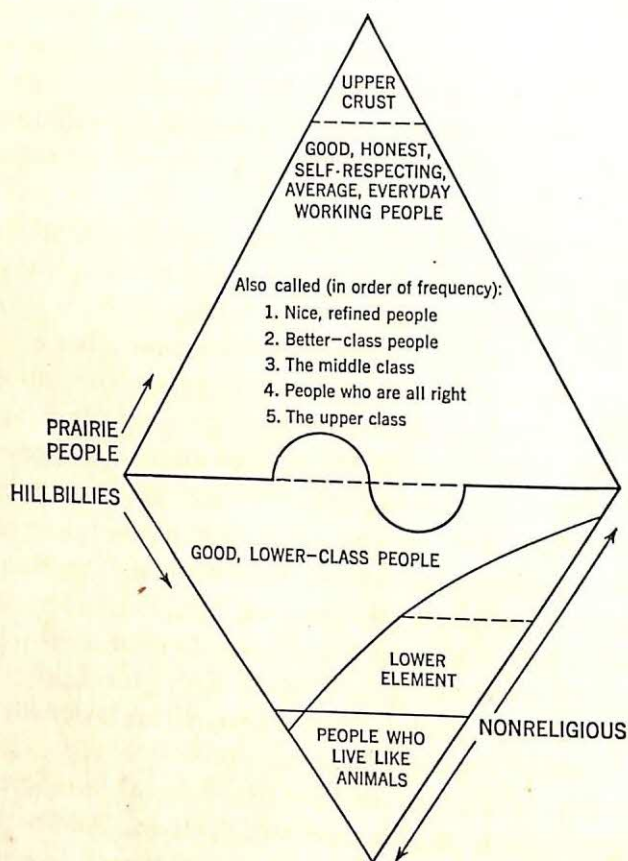


FIGURE 6. The social structure of Plainville, a community in the northern Ozarks. This diagram shows the approximate numerical divisions of the population, as well as the terms used by the people themselves to designate class differences.

and family. As indicated previously, the rate of arrests for this class is high, chiefly because it has insufficient power to protect its members, particularly the children, from the police.

A similar study of a rural community in the northern Ozarks also revealed the existence of social classes (13). Unlike Yankee

City, the community of Plainville was known to be relatively homogeneous before the study was initiated. Although the relative proportions of the various classes were not computed, the pyramid in Figure 6 suggests the numerical representation. The people of Plainville denied that social differences or distinctions existed in their community, but West noted that the descriptive phrases applied to different people there revealed attitudes of respect and deference. Thus, one group was referred to as "upper crust"; another as "Good, honest, self-respecting, average, everyday working people"; another as "Good, lower-class people"; another as the "lower element," and still another as "people who live like animals."

A number of criteria were found to be important in placing persons on the social scale. First, the people made a basic distinction between persons living on the prairie and those living in the hills. Largely because of better land, the prairie residents were generally a "better class of people." Second, the people considered technology important. Since the level prairie lands were better adapted to modern farming, these farms were more mechanized and therefore gave their residents social class advantage. Third, lineage was considered important. Fourth, a person's wealth or "worth" was directly correlated with high and low status. Fifth, "morals" were stressed. Honesty, temperance, and performance of household duties were prized in Plainville; and dishonesty, laziness, family neglect, gambling, and drunkenness were condemned. Finally, the sixth criterion used in rating people was "manners." A person had "manners" in Plainville if he followed the tastes and desires of the prairie people. In a sense, "manners" represented the knowledge and values of the respected group in Plainville, and consequently this criterion superseded all the others.

The Status System and the School Administrator

The studies of a midwestern town containing 6000 persons in the center and an additional 4000 in the surrounding rural

area supply more data on social status of concern to the school administrator than any similar investigations (10, 5, 4). A brief sketch of the nature of the five social classes (4) in this town is essential.

The upper class constitutes 2 percent of the people who are referred to as "the top crowd," "the aristocrats," "the four hundred," and "the money crowd." These individuals and a few "old families" or "the landed gentry" are important in community affairs but seldom appear personally at meetings. They give financial support to the churches and other agencies but take little active part in them. Although somewhat free morally by local standards, they are considered "the best people." There is no rural group comparable to the town's upper class.

The upper-middle class consists mostly of professional men, officials in local industries, "better" businessmen, and a few leading farmers. These people are considered "pillars of the church," "the people you go to if you want to get anything done"; they have high moral standards. They make up 6 to 8 percent of the town families. In the rural areas, the upper-middle class includes the "squire farmers" who are outstanding agriculturalists and live in large modern farm homes comparable to the best in town. The squire farmers supervise rather than farm, and their social participation is almost exclusively urban.

The "average man" belongs to the lower-middle class. Thirty-five to 40 percent of the residents of the town are in this class. Lower-middle-class families are large, and the children in this class account for about half of the children in the community. The "old landowners" are comparable rural residents. They belong to the Rural Home Club and Home Bureau and live in smaller homes than the squire farmers. They belong largely to the Methodist church, just as the lower-middle-class people do in the city. The men do not engage in social drinking and the women of this class do not smoke.

The upper-lower-class people are too busy making a living

to have much time for active participation in the town's social organizations. They are the "poor but respectable" people who make their living as semiskilled workers and laborers. They account for about 40 percent of the population. In the rural area they are tenant farmers, locally called "dirt farmers." The majority live in small houses without plumbing.

The lower-lower-class people are at the bottom of the social scale because of "nonrespectability." They are considered dirty, shiftless, dishonest, and immoral; however, they consider themselves "as good as anybody else." They account for about 12 or 15 percent of the town families. Rural lower-lower-class persons live in ramshackle houses and are often "in trouble with the law."

How the children in the fifth and sixth grades rate the various classes is revealed by a "guess who" test administered by the investigators (10). The results are shown in Table 1. From this table it is obvious that as status decreases, the number of votes on positive characteristics decreases and the number of votes on negative characteristics increases. The child unconsciously applies the criteria of judgment which adults use concerning cleanliness, clothing, manners, and language without thinking of them as the social class differences they really are.

When high-school sophomores and juniors were compared, the same general pattern which prevailed in the fifth and sixth grades was found, except that the lower classes did not receive more than their proportionate share of unfavorable votes. This is to be explained largely by the fact that the lower-class students who did not have the middle-class characteristics approved by middle-class teachers had dropped out of school. Thus, at the fifth- and sixth-grade level, 62 percent of the children are upper-lower class and 15 percent are lower-lower; at the tenth- and eleventh-grade level, the proportions drop to 46 and 6 percent, respectively.

The meaning of the pencil-and-paper judgment of associates is revealed in dating patterns (5). Most of the dating occurs

between members of the same class. Relatively infrequently are class lines crossed, especially if more than one such line is involved. Thus, it was found that 61 percent of the daters belonged to the same class; 35 percent belonged to the adjacent

TABLE 1. Percentage Distribution of How Children of Different Social Classes Are Rated by Their Age Mates¹

"Guess Who" Questions	Total Num- ber Choosing	Total Percent	Social Class Level ^a			
			Upper Middle	Lower Middle	Upper Lower	Lower Lower
Percent in various classes (expected)	...	100.0	6.0	17.0	62.0	15.0
"Best friend"	134	100.0	47.8	27.6	13.4	11.2
"Well dressed"	143	100.0	65.0	23.1	9.8	2.1
"Good looking"	82	100.0	52.5	32.9	13.4	1.2
"Popular"	63	100.0	61.9	23.8	12.7	1.6
"Likes school"	72	100.0	62.5	20.8	12.5	4.2
"Clean"	70	100.0	62.9	22.9	11.4	2.9
"Has good time"	51	100.0	52.9	27.5	9.8	9.8
"Good manners"	64	100.0	64.1	23.4	7.8	4.7
"Plays fair"	50	100.0	56.0	22.0	14.0	8.0
"Leader"	59	100.0	69.5	20.3	8.5	1.7
"Don't like"	62	100.0	14.5	8.1	17.7	59.7
"Not well dressed"	67	100.0	...	1.5	16.4	82.1
"Not good looking"	42	100.0	4.8	7.1	23.8	64.3
"Unpopular"	30	100.0	3.3	6.7	20.0	70.0
"Doesn't like school"	43	100.0	7.0	7.0	20.9	65.1
"Dirty"	42	100.0	...	2.4	16.7	80.9
"Never has good time"	20	100.0	15.0	25.0	20.0	40.0
"Bad manners"	35	100.0	14.3	17.1	14.3	54.3
"Doesn't play fair"	24	100.0	16.7	16.7	20.8	45.8
"Fights a lot"	58	100.0	13.8	13.8	15.5	36.2

^a No upper-class children were represented in the fifth and sixth grades.

class; and 4 percent were separated by one intervening class. In the analysis of the relation between the social structure of this town and the Board of Education, it was found that only middle-aged business and professional men from the two upper classes were represented on the board. These men, it was indicated, had the responsibility of preserving the economic

¹ Based upon 10, Table 5, p. 80.

interests, power, and prestige of the propertied classes. Consequently, the board was out of touch with the opinions, beliefs, prejudices, and aspirations of nearly 75 percent of the people. According to the investigator, it was concerned almost entirely with two things: (1) operating the schools as economically as possible, and (2) conformity of the teachers to conservative economic, political, religious, and moral doctrines, both in the classroom and in their private lives (5).

In this town, facilities and financial support were so poor that the North Central Association of Schools and Colleges dropped the high school from its accredited list and the state university threatened to discredit it. The reaction of the five classes to this crisis situation is interesting. The upper-class people were not alarmed. They favored waiting until the state authorities decided what they would do. The upper-middle-class people were divided in their loyalties. However, they sided with the upper class and maintained their traditional stand of keeping taxes low, since they were the owners of factories, mines, banks, and farms. The lower-middle-class people blamed the two classes above them for the trouble. In a sense their hands were tied, because they knew that the board would do what the bankers and big landowners wanted. The owners of small businesses did not want taxes to be raised, and the owners of medium-sized farms worked against improvement through the Farm Bureau. Only about one out of four of the upper-lower-class people were concerned about the condition of the school. There was an unorganized minority that was bitter about the school and how it was run. They felt that the school was operated for the sons and daughters of the three higher classes, and against the interests of their own children. This class thought that nothing could be done to change the position of the "inner ring." The lower-lower-class people were almost entirely uninterested in the question. They knew that their children were discriminated against in the system by both teachers and pupils. Such studies suggest that community life is to be understood

only if one has an appreciation of its component social classes. Since representatives of all classes meet in the schools, the school will err if it fails to recognize the character and needs of the different social groupings.

SOCIAL CONTEXTS FROM WHICH SCHOOL PROBLEMS ARISE

A great many problems which come to be considered school problems have their origin in a series of interrelated social circumstances or conditions. Rarely are such problems isolated or unrelated to a complex of elements having a social genesis. A large number of specific problems, we feel, grow out of social contexts related to the community, the clique, and social class. Some of these social contexts will be described here.

A Context of Inadequate Community Integration

As we indicated previously, the community is the locality group in which most services are made available for its people. If one or several of the services are inadequate, strains are produced for the members of the community. For example, if the members are forced to go elsewhere for any large proportion of their needs, community solidarity will probably suffer. Sociologists describe this condition as disorganized, weak, or lacking in integration. While the school itself may not be at fault, many school problems are generated by such community circumstances.

Closely related to the context just described is the failure of certain families and groups to become incorporated into the community. No single explanation, to be sure, accounts for all cases of this sort. It is not uncommon, however, for minority groups—particularly racial, ethnic, and lower-class segments—to be rejected by the old, stable residents of the community. Hence they do not become an integral part of the communities in which they reside. Often they do not become full-fledged members of their community's churches, social clubs, and school-related organizations.

If sociologists are correct in their belief that close, intimate ties are necessary for mental health and happiness, it might be expected that a context of community rejection will produce problems for the administrator and teacher. Except for family ties, minority groups often suffer psychosocial isolation in the very community in which they reside. Lack of integration with the group, Durkheim points out, is one of the major causes of suicide (2).

An extremely interesting study of southern migrants to California shows that recent migrants were not accepted in the old, established churches (3). Although the migrants had the same religious background as the residents, they were not equivalent in social class. As a result, Goldschmidt found that the migrants were becoming members of fundamentalist and sect churches. There is considerable support for the hypothesis that the rapid increase in sect groups may be attributed to the failure of communities to accept and incorporate migrants and other marginal groups into community life. In their attempt to replace community ties, such groups take refuge in the more emotional religious sects.

That school children whose families are not integrated in the community become problem children is not surprising. Especially is this true when one knows that coupled with incomplete integration is a relatively low educational attainment. The median number of school years completed by the adult population in 1940 was 8.8 years for the native-white persons. For the foreign-born it was 7.3, or about a year and a half less, on the average; for Negroes 5.7, or more than three years less; and for other races (Indians, Chinese, Japanese, etc.) 6.8, or two years less than the average for native whites.

A Context of Rejection in Clique or Friendship Groupings

As we suggested previously, the clique or friendship grouping serves important functions of socialization and communication. Frequently, certain types of persons are rejected for

membership in this social group. Whereas potential friction may often be side-stepped or avoided in community relations, rejection is often felt keenly in the school situation. The school provides a meeting ground, for here it is that clique groups spring up and flourish.

We have now amassed sufficient sociometric data to know that the isolates or rejects are often the poorer minority children. Neugarten's study of how the family's social position enters into a child's reputation with his associates, for example, is fascinating here (9). Neugarten asked fifth- and sixth-grade children in Hometown to reply to the following "guess who" statements: "These boys and girls are my best friends; they are the ones I play with most of the time," and "These are the boys and girls I wouldn't want to play with." When corrected for the varying sizes of the four social classes, about three-fourths of the "best friend" choices made were children in the upper two classes. Nearly half of the "do not want for a friend" choices were members of the lowest class.

An excellent study of the cleavages in the tenth grade at Crestview High School is also revealing (1). Cook's study reveals a situation which, in many respects, is like that in many other high-school classes throughout the country. The interpersonal relations between members are shown in the sociogram in Figure 7. Here we can observe isolates such as W (Will) and B (Bob) who were not chosen as friends by any classmate. The pair U-V (Una and Violet) represent a mutual choice. The chain relationship, a series of one-way choices, and the cluster or clique with its "star" may also be observed.

In this study it was found that the majority of favorable choices involved members of the same sex and members of the same social class. This is shown in Figure 7 by the class levels I, II, and III. The study also revealed that the upper-class tenth-grade children received more than their share of choices as "best dressed," "best liked," "most fun," and "real leader." The lower-class children were seldom mentioned in these connections except by other low-class tenth-graders.

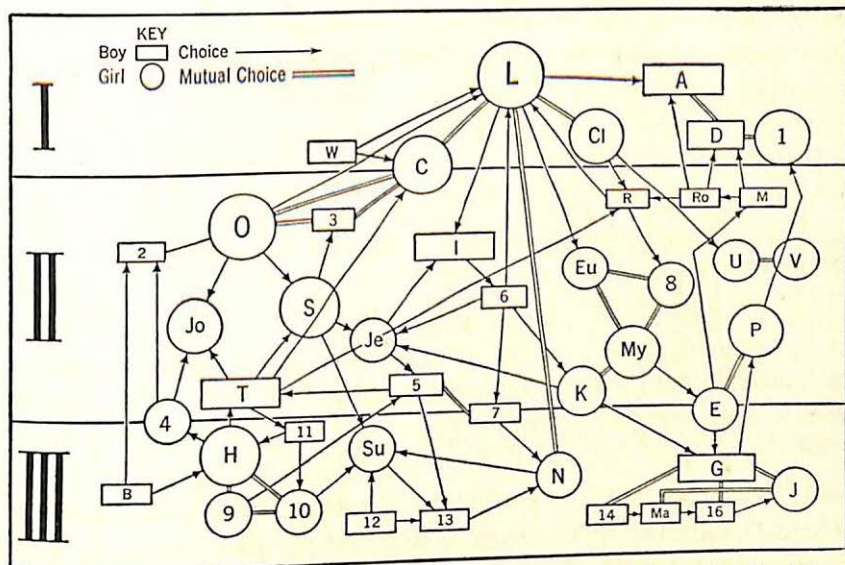


FIGURE 7. Friendship choices made by tenth-grade students in Crestview High School. This sociogram shows three social class groups and the clique or friendship groupings.

If learning takes place most readily in a friendly, congenial environment, the rejection by clique or friendship groups must be keenly felt by many school children, and in the final analysis represents a deterrent to learning. Teachers and administrators must make serious efforts to minimize such stresses on their pupils.

A Context of Contradiction Due to Divergence of Socio-Cultural Backgrounds of Teacher and Pupil

As we suggested, school children represent the entire range of social classes and cultural backgrounds. Thus, each child, when he enters school, brings with him the attitudes and values of his class and culture. The teachers, on the other hand, largely represent the upper- and lower-middle classes. Warner, Havig-hurst, and Loeb estimate that 90 percent of the teachers in this country come from these two classes (12). As representatives of the middle classes, teachers embody middle-class values. Not only do they tend to teach these values, but they tend to select

for advancement the pupils who most nearly represent their own feelings and beliefs. One brief quotation states the problem lucidly:

Teachers represent middle-class attitudes and enforce middle-class values and manners. In playing this role, teachers do two things. They train or seek to train children in middle-class manners and skills. And they select those children from the middle and lower classes who appear to be the best candidates for promotion in the social hierarchy. Two groups of children escape this influence in part. Children of upper-class parents often do not go to the public schools or drop out after a few years of public-school attendance. These children attend private schools or have private tutors. . . . Many children of lower-class parents also escape the influence of teachers, through being recalcitrant in school and through dropping out of school just as early as possible. (12)

As was indicated in the case of lower-class children, many school problems arise from the situation just outlined. The problem created for the nonmiddle-class pupil is that of resolving the contradictions posed by the ideals and values taught at home and those taught by middle-class teachers. Many argue that such inconsistencies or contradictions are among the major causes of modern personality problems.

SUMMARY

That the school and the school administrator are intimately related to various groups in the community cannot be emphasized too strongly. The effective administrator must know something of the nature and function of the many clique or informal friendship groupings both in the school and in the community. He must also be cognizant of the locality group which we have referred to as the neighborhood and community, especially with regard to its boundaries, services, and composition. In mobilizing the community for action, the need for knowledge of these facts cannot be ignored. Finally, the administrator must not overlook social class differences among pupils and their families. He must not be blind to the fact that such groups have varying values, attitudes, and behavior patterns.

Many school problems arise from a series of social conditions or complexes. A context of inadequate community integration often produces problems which directly or indirectly affect the school. Second, a context of rejection by clique or friendship groupings, in both the community and the classroom, tends to produce personality and behavior problems. Finally, a context of contradiction growing out of differing social-class backgrounds of students and teachers is likely to create difficulty.

QUESTIONS

1. How many social classes are there in your community? Can you list people who have moved out of their social class? How many families that you know have been in the same social class for two or more generations?
2. Do you have social classes in your high school? Does the school encourage or discourage social cliques? How should cliques be treated in a school system?
3. How does a class structure affect the democratic way of living? Will there always be a class structure in a democracy? Should the school try to do anything about the class structure in its educational programs?
4. Are there active neighborhood groups in your community? How has the modern industrial system affected neighborhood groups in your community? How can neighborhood groups be developed in community life?
5. How do cities and rural villages differ with respect to neighborhood groups? How do cities differ from rural villages with respect to community life? How do you develop a feeling of communion in a city?

PROBLEM

Check your own community to see if there are real leaders who are not in status leadership positions. Would you have selected these people as leaders? How would you conduct a sociometric survey of your community to find leaders?

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IV

Psychological Aspects of Authoritarian and Democratic Leadership

In the past decade or two social psychologists have become increasingly interested in the study of authoritarian and democratic behavior. Much of the research and writing on this problem was probably an outgrowth of the increasing threat to the integrity and dignity of the individual as evidenced by the rise of Fascism in Europe in the 'thirties—especially the rise of Nazism in Germany. The relative ease with which Adolf Hitler and his party achieved power in Germany, the relative absence of resistance by the German people to the Nazi rise to power, the brutality of the Gestapo, the horrors of the concentration camp, the wholesale persecution and extermination of millions of people—these were the social events which compellingly led social psychologists to the study of the psychological roots of authoritarianism.

Is it an authoritarian family structure which predisposes the individual to accept authority in adulthood? Under what conditions do individuals give up their freedom and willingly obey the wishes of a Führer? Are there people who may properly be

characterized as having authoritarian personalities? If so, what are the determining factors which lead to the development of an authoritarian personality structure? What are the situational and cultural determinants of authoritarianism? What is the potential for Fascism in the United States? What are the psychological effects—motivational, emotional, and intellectual—on individuals who live in an authoritarian atmosphere? These are some of the questions that were asked and for which scientific answers were sought.

It is evident that the answers to these questions, however tentative, have great relevance for the school administrator. Many actual and potential school administrators consciously seek to advance the ideal of mass education within a genuinely democratic frame of reference. They will be better equipped to perform their administrative functions in a democratic society if they can be made cognizant of some of the recent advances made by social psychologists in this field.

The need for wide dissemination of the psychology of authoritarianism becomes even more evident when it is explicitly recognized that because of complex cultural factors which have their roots in the historical growth of our political, economic, and religious institutions, there is probably something of the authoritarian in everyone. Unless people in free societies learn to recognize these authoritarian trends in themselves and others they will not be able to cope with them intelligently. Unless, furthermore, they learn something of the psychosocial conditions under which authoritarianism thrives and the psychologically harmful effects of authoritarianism they will be incapable of even beginning to practice what they so fervently preach. We can think of not a few administrators who practice autocracy while they preach democracy. This contradiction between words and deeds can best be understood not as a manifestation of hypocrisy but rather as a manifestation of underlying conflicting drives whose full nature is beyond the conscious awareness of the individual. It is by shedding some light on the nature of these conflicts that the social psychologist can perform a

worth-while service in advancing the field of democratic education and administration.

Many school administrators are aware of the fact that like commercial, political, governmental, and religious institutions our educational institution has been traditionally hierarchical in its social structure. The concentration of authority, whether we wish to admit it or not, is at the top and it reaches out in tentacle-like pyramidal fashion to those at the bottom. In the school situation it is the board of education which may be conceived as occupying a position at the apex of the pyramid. Below it, in turn, are superintendents, principals, assistant principals, teachers, and finally the children in the classroom. In terms of this pyramidal structure it is seen that administrative duties and obligations do not reside in a single office but may be said to be distributed all along the pyramid. There are many administrators rather than just one within the school. Even some of the children may be said to have administrative functions; for example, the officers of the various student organizations perform various administrative functions.

The problem of democratic administration, then, is not as simple psychologically and sociologically as it first seems. Within the educational hierarchical setup just outlined there are undoubtedly many individuals at all levels—children, teachers, principals—who by virtue of past and present environmental and cultural factors may be oriented in an authoritarian direction. This is true of both leaders and followers, both children and adults. This is bound to reflect itself in both beliefs and actions. It accentuates all the more the need for the school administrator, at whatever level he may be functioning, to understand the dynamics and salient features of authoritarianism.

THE AUTHORITARIAN PERSONALITY HAS BEEN DEFINED BY RESEARCH

The material presented in this section is based largely on findings of a group of investigators at the University of Cali-

fornia who for the past few years have been engaged in studying the dynamics of democratic and antidemocratic behavior. These findings have recently been reported in detail in a book entitled *The Authoritarian Personality* by Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswick, Levinson, and Sanford (1). Other findings to be presented here are based upon other published (5, 8, 17, 21) and yet to be published material (18, 19, 20).

The main purpose of these investigators was to determine the nature of the personality differences between individuals who hold to antidemocratic attitudes and beliefs on the one hand and individuals who hold to democratic attitudes and beliefs on the other. That democratic and antidemocratic orientation was conceived as a continuous rather than a dichotomous variable is indicated by the fact that they employed a Likert-type Ethnocentrism Scale to measure authoritarian beliefs and attitudes. This scale was composed of items having to do with Jews, Negroes, foreigners, zoot suiters, etc., and the subjects were asked to indicate on a six-point scale the degree of their agreement-disagreement with each of the items. Some typical items are:

Zoot suiters prove that when people of their type have too much money and freedom, they just take advantage and cause trouble.

Negroes have their rights, but it is best to keep them in their own districts and schools and to prevent too much contact with whites.

One trouble with Jewish business men is that they stick together and prevent other people from having a fair chance in competition.

On the basis of the scores obtained on these and other items, the people scoring extremely high and extremely low in prejudice were selected for further study by a variety of techniques to be mentioned shortly. But first a word about the subjects.

The subjects in these studies numbered in the thousands. Included were both adults and children. The adults were recruited from many walks of life and included men and women, college students, university extension students, veterans and nonveterans, businessmen, workers, officer candidates from a

school for Merchant Marine officers, inmates from San Quentin State Prison, psychiatric clinic patients, men and women members of a parent-teachers association, members of the League of Women Voters, members of the Kiwanis and Rotary Service Clubs, and persons of various political and religious membership.

The children who served as subjects were boys and girls recruited from various schools in the San Francisco Bay area. They ranged in age from eleven to sixteen years. They represented all socio-economic strata (one group of children came from a neighborhood restricted to white gentiles) and various religious and ethnic groups.

The methods employed in studying the subjects, both adults and children, were manifold. Included were specially constructed personality tests, attitude tests, intensive interviews, various projective techniques (Thematic Apperception, Rorschach, projective questions, projective attitude test), and a number of controlled experiments which had to do with the study of intellectual, perceptual, and memory factors.

The results of these investigations yielded a picture of an authoritarian-ethnocentric personality which formed a systematic and consistent Gestalt. It is not possible to present in detail a comprehensive picture of the authoritarian personality found by these investigators. We shall attempt instead to present the highlights which are deemed to have the greatest relevance for people interested in the problem of democratic school administration.

The Authoritarian Person Adapts

The authoritarian person, in the extreme case, conforms unquestioningly and rigidly to middle-class values and ideals. This is not to say that all conventional persons are necessarily authoritarian in outlook. There are many whose conventional outlook stems from rational and philosophical considerations. In contrast, the rigid conformist follows arbitrary *rules* rather

than rational *principles*. The emphasis is on compulsive, irrational conformity for conformity's sake rather than conventional adherence to, say, the democratic principles of a Jefferson or Lincoln. That the authoritarian is more likely to conform rigidly to middle-class values is evidenced by the following facts:

That he, more frequently than the anti-ethnocentric person, is likely to express his unqualified approval of statements to the effect that the most important thing for children to learn is obedience and respect.¹

That a person cannot expect to get along with decent people if he has bad manners and breeding.

That everyone would be better off if people would talk less and work more and that it is the businessman and manufacturer rather than the artist or professor who is more important to society.

We may illuminate further this rigid conformity of the authoritarian personality by citing from the autobiography of George X, an avowed fascist student: "Maybe I'm narrow-minded, but I try to run my life on a set of high standards devised by myself. One of these standards is that a person *must* marry someone of their own race, religion, and not more than two or three years difference between their respective ages; the woman of course being the younger" (21:533).

Hierarchical and Equalitarian Conceptions of Humanity Are in Conflict

There are two opposing ways in which humanity may be conceived. One is the equalitarian democratic view expressed in the Bill of Rights, that each person is as good and has the same rights and privileges as everyone else. The opposite view, characteristic of the authoritarian, involves a conception of individuals occupying different positions in a hierarchy of authority and power, with each person in the hierarchy submitting to those above him and at the same time dominating those below him. Many have observed the phenomenon of the ad-

¹ These statements and others used for illustrative purposes are taken from the "F-scale." This scale is a personality test designed to measure susceptibility to the acceptance of fascist ideology.

ministrator who is domineering and arrogant toward his staff and at the same time meek and submissive toward his superiors. But it would be a mistake to think that this is true only of the authoritarian administrator. It is generally typical of the authoritarian personality—both adult and child—in whatever position he may find himself.

If this appears somewhat paradoxical it may perhaps be resolved by considering further what Adorno *et al.* (1) call authoritarian submission and authoritarian aggression. Submission and aggression may be fruitfully conceived as two sides of the same coin. Where one is found it is likely that the other will also be found.

Authoritarian Submission

Fromm (7) and others have pointed out that in times of social crisis, as was the case in Germany after the First World War, many persons will willingly give up their freedom to a strong leader in return for the security promised them. Adorno *et al.* (1) suggest that this need to submit for the sake of achieving some measure of security is also true at the individual level. To allay anxiety, to avoid punishment, the authoritarian must repress his hostility toward authority figures and instead, by a process of reaction formation, develop an uncritical, idealized attitude toward them. One manifestation of this is his strict conformity to conventional values. This manifests itself further when, more frequently than the democratically oriented person, he expresses his approval of statements such as the following:

That young people should get over their rebellious ideas and settle down.

That more than anything else this country needs strong leaders in whom the people have faith.

That there are many events which indicate the operation of supernatural powers and that everyone should have faith in and obey without question these supernatural powers.

The authoritarian is not only incapable of criticizing the symbols of authority but he is usually incapable of tolerating such criticism from others. Both of these facets are readily illustrated in the autobiography of George X:

To this day my blood boils whenever I hear veterans and others unduly criticize the military. I might add that I am 100% for military training. (21:530)

In general, I have all praise and no complaints for my relations with my *immediate* family. . . . I have much respect for family because I should. (21:529)

. . . I have never yet or ever had any intention of really talking back to my parents (something which I have always considered revolting and inexcusable). (21:531)

There is much clinical evidence, according to Adorno *et al.* (1), that those with an authoritarian orientation were subjected to stricter discipline in childhood than those with a more democratic orientation. This leads, according to psychoanalytic theory, to a repression of certain basic needs, especially those having sexual and aggressive components. It is no wonder, then, that the authoritarian should turn out to be more conforming and submissive than less authoritarian people.

Authoritarian Aggression

Because of repressed impulses and because he cannot express his hostility toward the ingroup and the ingroup authorities, the authoritarian must seek an outlet for his impulses elsewhere. He is left no choice but to display his aggressions toward outgroups. This, according to Adorno *et al.* (1), is the dynamic basis for ethnocentrism—that is, the need to reject Jews, Negroes, zoot suiters, foreigners, and the like. Indeed, there appears to be no limit to the different kinds of outgroups toward whom hostility may be expressed. According to one investigator (9), even such nonexistent groups as Wallonians, Danireans, and Pirenians become objects of dislike. This ethnocentric rejection of outgroups may at the one extreme manifest itself in the mild hostility of the gentlemanly anti-Semite or, at the

other extreme, in S.S. Colonel Hoess, who as commander of the Auschwitz extermination camp supervised the extermination of two and one-half million men, women, and children (8).

Authoritarian aggression has yet another dynamic basis. By a process of projection, the authoritarian is able to reject the existence within himself of his repressed needs and to attribute their existence to others. Thus he selectively perceives that all about him there are people who are attempting to violate conventional values and to satisfy impulses which he cannot himself satisfy and which he has therefore come to feel and believe are morally reprehensible. This sort of "psychologics" further provides him with a ready-made kind of rationalization for the development of stereotyped moralistic and punitive beliefs and attitudes about the sexual looseness of Negroes, the shady business practices of Jews, and the slyness and treachery of the Japanese. Furthermore, this moralistic and punitive attitude manifests itself in a more pervasive need to punish violators of conventional values regardless of the ethnic origin of the violators. This is evidenced by the fact that the antidemocratic person has been found, more frequently than the democratic person, to endorse statements to the effect that one should always punish insults to one's honor, that sex criminals should be publicly whipped, that we can solve most of our social problems by ridding ourselves of immoral, crooked, and feeble-minded people, and that homosexuals should be severely punished.

There are some indications that the authoritarian recognizes, at least at the unconscious level, and fears social retaliation for the antisocial nature of his aggressiveness. The frequently heard statement: "Some of my best friends are Jews, but . . ." is a case in point. The further fact that the authoritarian prefers to remain anonymous in situations where he has taken an aggressive stand toward outgroups is another case in point. In one experiment by the writer a large number of college students, known only by identification numbers, were asked to do

several tasks including filling out the Ethnocentrism Scale. This scale, as was indicated above, has to do with Jews, Negroes, foreigners, etc. It was found that the subjects who expressed hostile attitudes toward minority groups more frequently preferred to leave the experimental situation without giving their names than those who expressed tolerant attitudes.

The irrational nature of the aggressiveness and the accompanying fear of punishment for such aggressiveness is perhaps best exemplified in its extreme form in the anonymous "poison-pen" letter. The following is a letter received by the writer subsequent to a brief press release reporting his work on ethnocentrism and rigidity (17):

After having read your amazing article in last night's Blade, I could hardly believe my eyes, yet it was surely there. One of those stupid cockeyed theories such as the Russians use for blocking Berlin. Of all the asinine logic this is it. Many citizens have often wondered why some colleges use good tax money to keep fellows like you running loose, for the average run of the mill citizen do not take you serious at any time. How could they? for there are just as many opinions as the number of psychologists involved. Except, where they get together before hand and have reasons to agree.

But when you get this modern psychology down to the fine hair-splitting point of telling a man's religion by his mathematics, it is equal to the atomic bomb or television. It would be very interesting to know just why the protestants are so much slower in arriving at a mathematical conclusion, could it be the hate venom in the blood stream Of course the colored folks are fast on figures in a dice game, and get plenty practice, and the Jews run at least 75% of the gambling joints of the country, and the Catholics play bingo and count their beads. so it must be their constant use of figures that makes them so much more apt with figures. It coul'dnt possibly come from religion for both sides have the same equal amount of hate.

Honestly Professor: I really think you will have to shoot from another angle, just as a lead, would advise counting the rings around a Jews navel. It usually tells the story.

Yours,

Just a taxpayer.

Power and "Toughness"

The authoritarian personality, as was indicated before, is driven in an authoritarian direction in order to achieve security.

He perceives the world he lives in to be a friendless and hostile sort of world. Indeed, it might be said that he sees the social world he lives in as a jungle, where survival is achieved only by being ever on the alert and by making sure that no one is stronger than he. This "jungle philosophy of life," this attitude of "kill or be killed" is clearly revealed by George X, the avowed Fascist, when he writes:

I'll let the whole thing go by just telling you my philosophy of life—if I don't kill the next man, he'll kill me. I might add that I trust no one, least of all myself or anyone like me. No matter what is done for me or for anyone else, I always look upon the act as the product of an ulterior motive. Perhaps it is the fact that I never do anything for anyone (except for my family) unless I know beforehand that I will be the one who really gains. (21:535)

It is no wonder, then, given this sort of conception of the world, that the authoritarian strives for power and "toughness." According to the findings of Adorno *et al.* (1), people high in authoritarianism more frequently than those low in authoritarianism indicate their agreement with statements to the effect that it is strict discipline which the youth of our country need most, that we should punish insults to our honor, that in order to prevent chaos in postwar Germany we should obtain the aid of prewar (Nazi) authorities, and that our lives are controlled by individuals and groups who are secretly plotting against us.

The need to be "tough" is exemplified in George X when he writes of his army experiences as follows:

I travelled widely on my passes covering as much ground as possible with little or no food and sleep (actually I was trying to "condition" myself to meet all types of possibilities. I went so far as to walk for hours in rain, wind, etc. in an attempt to really make myself immune to hardships. I still do this occasionally). (21:531)

It is evident that this need to "condition" oneself to hardships (as was also the case with Hitler) is designed to qualify the authoritarian to assume a position of power. To illustrate further this need for power, the autobiography of George X may be used again:

I like authority. I like to run things my way and not be one of the multitudes who, in my estimation, are practically slaves to others, as well as slaves to themselves. . . . It has always been a rather deep ambition of mine . . . to have military, political, and economic power to such a degree that my decisions would be a matter of life or death to thousands. It is this ever-present maddening thought that attacks my mind with such fury that all other more peaceful and acceptable ideas of mine are at once dispelled. It is this same superiority feeling that makes me act extremely arrogant at times, and look with a mixture of contempt, hate, and even an unearthly pity upon almost everyone I meet. (21:530)

Superstition

The dynamic factors which determine the authoritarian's conventionalism, submissiveness to authority, and aggression toward outgroups also predispose him to seek explanations and hence to have faith in and obey external, supernatural forces beyond his control. Thus, he agrees more frequently than the democratic person with such statements as the following:

Science has its place but there are many important things that can never possibly be understood by the human mind.

Every person should have complete faith in some supernatural power whose decisions he obeys without question.

Some day it will probably be shown that astrology can explain a lot of things.

This overreliance on fate can be further illustrated by citing the case of a female college student known to be oriented in an authoritarian direction. She was to be married in two months and was actively searching for an apartment. Because of the housing shortage her efforts did not prove successful. At about this time a member of a veterans' organization sold her a chance on a \$10,000 house, the drawing to take place about a month later. The young woman pondered considerably over the whole affair and became increasingly convinced that her need for a place to live and the fact that she was approached to buy a chance on a house could be no mere coincidence but was really an act of fate designed to solve her housing problem. She gave

up all further attempts to find an apartment herself. Needless to say, someone else won the house.

Rigidity

A further characteristic of the authoritarian personality is his rigidity. This refers to a tendency to think in rigid dichotomies, a tendency to regard everything in either-or, black-white categories. It refers also to an inability to change one's set, an inability to perceive alternative solutions to a problem in order to solve the problem more efficiently. Furthermore, there is the added notion that the authoritarian is compelled to think in rigid, compulsive terms because he is "intolerant of ambiguity" (6).

The fact that the authoritarian thinks in rigid categories is evidenced by his need to identify people in terms of race and religion, and his inability to perceive individual differences in people who are members of racial and ethnic outgroups. Furthermore, he more frequently agrees with the statement, "People can be divided into two distinct classes: the weak and the strong."

The extent to which this rigidity is characteristic of the authoritarian has been demonstrated by Rokeach (17). He hypothesized that "the rigidity inherent in the ethnocentric person's solution of social problems is not an isolated phenomenon but is rather an aspect of a general rigidity factor which will manifest itself in solving any problem, social or nonsocial in nature" (17:276).

The subjects in this study were both adults and children. By means of an attitude scale the subjects expressing democratic beliefs were distinguished from those expressing anti-democratic beliefs. Rigidity measures were obtained by means of an arithmetical technique in which the subject was given three containers of specified capacity and asked to obtain a specified amount of water by manipulating the three jars. A

"set" was first established in the subjects by presenting a series of problems which could be solved only in a rather involved, complicated manner. Then critical problems were presented which were capable of two alternative solutions—by the "set" method and by a much simpler method. Solving these critical problems by the "set" method rather than by the simpler method was taken as an indication of rigidity. In several experiments, with both adults and children, it was found that those oriented in an authoritarian direction were more rigid, that is, they solved the critical problems the "hard" way more frequently than those oriented in a democratic direction.

In another study rigidity was measured in yet another way. The subjects (adults) were presented with a series of simple maps representing several city blocks. Their task was to describe in their own words the *shortest* way to go from one part of the city to another. A diagonal pathway was shown on all the maps but was constructed in such a way that it was of no help in the first five maps presented. In the immediately following critical problems, however, the diagonal pathway could be used as a short cut to the goal. Here again it was found that the subjects expressing hostile attitudes toward various ethnic and racial groups failed more frequently to use the short cut in the critical problems.

Concreteness of Thinking

Closely related to the greater rigidity of the authoritarian personality is his relatively more concrete approach to both social and nonsocial problems. Concreteness of attitude refers to the inability of an individual to remove himself sufficiently from the immediate problem situation to be able to view the problem from an abstract level. This concreteness is evidenced by the fact that in the rigidity experiments previously discussed the adults and children who were relatively high in authoritarian attitudes used more scratch paper in subtracting simple one- and two-digit numbers from other two-digit numbers.

Those low in authoritarian attitudes, by contrast, demonstrated a relatively greater ability to approach these arithmetic problems more abstractly; that is, they more frequently did their subtracting "in their head."

There is useful evidence from another study (18) which clearly demonstrates the concrete attitude of the authoritarian. When asked to define such words as Catholicism, Judaism, Communism, etc., those high in authoritarianism more frequently defined them in terms of "a person who believes in . . .," "a follower of . . .," "a believer in . . .," etc. By contrast, those low in authoritarian orientation more frequently defined these concepts somewhat along the following lines: "a belief about . . .," "a religion having to do with . . .," "a philosophy concerned with . . .," etc. These results suggest further that the authoritarian's hostility and rejection of various outgroups are not rooted in an abstract understanding of the principles for which the various groups stand (Catholicism, Judaism, Communism) but rather that his hostility is concretely and rigidly rooted in specific individuals (Catholics, Jews, Communists).

Narrow-mindedness

The argument has been advanced (20) that there are many individuals known to be oriented in a democratic, tolerant direction who are just as rigid, just as resistant to change as those oriented in the opposite direction. The only difference, it is contended, is that while the stereotypes of the authoritarian have to do with Jews, Negroes, etc., the stereotypes of the anti-authoritarian have to do with capitalists, Fascists, reactionaries, etc. If this line of argument has any validity it would tend to contradict other empirical findings to the effect that those high in authoritarianism are more rigid and concrete than those low in authoritarianism. How can this dilemma be resolved?

On the basis of common observation it may readily be granted that it is about as difficult to alter democratic attitudes

in the direction of authoritarianism as it is to alter authoritarianism in the direction of democratic orientation. Nevertheless, there seems to be a crucial difference between the two. This difference may be expressed as follows: Authoritarian orientation differs from democratic orientation not so much in that one is more resistant to change than the other, but rather that the resistance of authoritarian orientation to change is rooted in a *narrower* outlook on life than is the case with the democratic orientation. Conversely, the democratic orientation may be conceived to have its roots in a relatively broader and more *comprehensive* outlook on life.

To test this hypothesis it was first necessary to devise a measure of "narrow-mindedness" (19). The subjects were 144 freshmen at Michigan State College. They were presented with the following ten concepts in alphabetical order: *Buddhism, Capitalism, Catholicism, Christianity, Communism, Democracy, Fascism, Judaism, Protestantism, Socialism*. It will be noted that five of these are religious concepts, the other five political-economic concepts.

The subjects were told that all these terms are related to each other. Their task was to write a paragraph in which they indicated in what way these terms were interrelated. They were further told that if they did not think that all the terms were interrelated they need only write about those which were related; they were to skip the rest.

The descriptions obtained from the subjects seemed to fall along a continuum ranging from *comprehensive* at one extreme to *isolated* at the middle to *narrow* at the other extreme. A *comprehensive* organization is one in which the ten concepts are organized into a single integrated Gestalt. The following are examples of this: "All are beliefs," "All are philosophies of life," "All are ways of living."

An *isolated* organization is one in which the ten concepts are organized into two or more subordinate Gestalts which have no relation to each other. Many subjects, for example, stated:

"Five are religious. Five are governments." Nothing further was said by these subjects to suggest that the governments and religions are further related to each other.

A *narrow* organization is one in which something less than the ten concepts are discussed by the subject. In other words, one or more of the ten are omitted from the organization. Thus one subject wrote: "The only ones that are related are the religious ones because they all believe in God." Nothing further was said about the remaining five concepts. Another subject's description was to the effect that five refer to governments and that Christianity, Protestantism, and Catholicism all believe in God. No mention was made of Buddhism or Judaism.

With the development of this method for studying "narrow-mindedness" it was possible to determine the underlying cognitive organization of subjects oriented in authoritarian and in democratic directions. It was found that those expressing the greatest amount of antidemocratic sentiment manifested the greatest number of *narrow* organizations. The subjects who were in the middle—that is, they were neither extremely authoritarian nor extremely democratic in orientation—gave the greatest number of isolated organizations. Finally, the most democratically oriented subjects manifested *comprehensive* organizations more than those in the middle or those characterized as authoritarian.

From the results of this study it is now more clearly seen that the democratic person's resistance to change is more frequently rooted in a *comprehensive* organization of the social world. Conversely, the authoritarian's resistance to change is seen to be rooted in a relatively *narrower* organization of his social world.

Intelligence

The question may be raised whether the greater rigidity, concreteness of thinking, and "narrow-mindedness" of the authoritarian cannot be readily explained in terms of intelligence.

Although various studies show that people expressing anti-democratic sentiments are generally lower in intelligence than those expressing democratic sentiments, it has also been shown that intelligence, as presently measured, fails to explain adequately the results obtained. Rigidity, for example, correlates $-.19$ with the Stanford-Binet, $-.13$ with the Wechsler-Bellevue, and $-.24$ with the California Mental Maturity Scale (17). Similarly, it has been shown that when different groups of subjects are equated for *comprehensiveness* they still differ significantly in intelligence (20).

These results suggest either that intelligence, as presently conceived and measured, is in need of reformulation or that the personality factors leading to authoritarianism also lead to an inhibition of intelligence such that rigidity in problem solving, concreteness of thinking, and "narrow-mindedness" are manifested. It is beyond the scope of this chapter to consider further which of these alternatives is more correct.

WHAT ARE THE CHILDHOOD DETERMINANTS OF AUTHORITARIANISM?

The personality factors which have been found to differentiate subjects with antidemocratic tendencies were obtained primarily from the study of adults. That these findings are, in general, also applicable to children is suggested by Frenkel-Brunswik (5) and Rokeach (17). Thus, highly authoritarian children (ages 11 to 16) were found to be more prejudiced toward such groups as Jews, Negroes, Japanese, and Mexicans, were found to be more rigid in both the emotional sphere and the intellectual sphere, were more concrete in their thinking, ranked higher in both authoritarian submission and aggression, had a greater admiration for power (as manifested by more frequent agreement with the statement, "Might makes right; the strong win out in the end"), were found to be more superstitious (fear of black cats, belief in astrology, etc.).

What are the determinants of authoritarianism in both adults

and children? Frenkel-Brunswik's analysis of this problem (5) provides at least a tentative answer to this problem. The results of her interviews with children and their parents show that the authoritarian child is more often forced to submit to strong authority in the home. The interview findings suggest that parents of authoritarian children have an exaggerated concern about social status, perhaps because they are frequently of marginal status. In consequence, they impose on the child an externalized set of values and a pattern of manners and morals enforced by threat of punishment. Rather than acceptance or understanding on the part of the child, there is superficial conformity which makes his rules inflexible and his judgment of others harsh. His rigidity is manifested not only in his conception of sex roles and of parent-child relationships, but also in his more general incapacity to tolerate ambiguities. He seeks security by resorting to simple and stereotyped solutions to whatever problem he is facing. The authoritarian pattern of family relationships leads, on the one hand, to demands for harsh discipline and autocratic leadership and, on the other hand, to resentment against authoritarianism. This resentment, however, must be repressed because of fear of retaliation and because of dependence upon the parents for material benefits. Repression of hostility and "identification with the aggressor" are probably partially responsible for the authoritarian's admiration of power and prestige and his rejection of weakness. At the same time, there are evidences of a lack of real affection, of neglect, and of rejection of the child by parents.

On the other hand the liberal child, according to Frenkel-Brunswik, is reared in a more permissive and democratic atmosphere, with more warmth and genuine love. His rules are evaluated by him and are more fully integrated into his personality. Because his childhood training takes place in a more equalitarian atmosphere, he learns a more individualized approach to people and looks for companionship and fun rather than for surface politeness and social conformity. He is more independ-

ent of authority and can admit weakness in himself and in his group.

"This is not to say that the liberal child is necessarily always socially or personally better adjusted. He has more open anxieties, more directly faced insecurities, more conflicts" (5:306). However, the democratic child's personality is more flexible and integrated; and because his anxieties are more open, he is more capable, on both emotional and intellectual grounds, of evaluating social and political events realistically and of handling his emotional conflicts and problems in a relatively more appropriate and constructive manner.

In a democratic society the attitude of the child and adult toward authority represents a significant social problem. "Deliberately planned democratic participation in school and family, individualized approach to the child, and the right proportion of permissiveness and guidance may be instrumental in bringing about the attitudes necessary for a genuine identification with society and thus for international understanding" (5:306).

AUTHORITARIANISM IS AFFECTED BY SITUATIONAL FACTORS

Thus far the discussion has been concerned primarily with those aspects of authoritarian attitudes and behavior which have their roots in personality factors. It would be a great oversimplification, however, to assume that all antidemocratic behavior is necessarily an outcome of such personality factors. The specific social situation the person finds himself in is equally important. As Lewin has pointed out, behavior is the result of the interaction of both personality and the environment. Seen in this light, it is not strictly correct to speak of *the* authoritarian personality or *the* democratic personality. In the final analysis, *authoritarian or democratic behavior is a function of the interaction between both sets of factors.*

There are many situational factors which are likely to lead to authoritarian behavior.

Social Structure

Given the competitive values so characteristic of western culture, it is all but inevitable that the total social structure of our society will assume a hierarchical character. The work of Warner and Lunt (23) provides ample evidence for this hypothesis. According to their findings, American urban society can generally be classified as falling into the following classes: upper-upper, lower-upper, upper-middle, lower-middle, upper-lower, and lower-lower. This sort of social structure, although vastly more complex, is not unlike the social hierarchies found in chickens, birds, and other animals. In the writer's opinion, such hierarchical social structures, whether found in animals or man, provide to an important extent the broad environmental frame of reference within which submission to authority on the one hand and on the other the need to dominate others become possible.

Fortunately this is not the whole story. If it were, the widespread rejection of antidemocratic sentiments by Americans would not exist. In spite of a hierarchical social organization of classes in this country we have fostered and encouraged democratic sentiments. This is probably due to two sets of highly interrelated facts. First, we have other basic values in our culture which have served to counteract the competitive values. We refer here to what Gunnar Myrdal (16) has called the American Creed. In accordance with this creed, many Americans sincerely believe in the concepts of democracy, equality of opportunity, and fair play. Second, while it may be true that we have a ladder-type social structure, this social structure permits some mobility from one class to another. This is to be contrasted with German culture where authoritarianism is more deeply rooted because the class structure has rigidified to the extent that social mobility is, relatively speaking, no longer possible. Democratic values have been less influential historically in Germany than in America.

Nevertheless, it would be hazardous to minimize too much the role which our social structure plays in fostering authoritarianism. To the extent that authoritarianism dominates our thinking, to the extent that it serves to define the present situation, to the extent, furthermore, that the class system tends to become frozen and begins to take on a caste-like character (e.g., the Negro caste), authoritarianism will probably flourish.

Competitive values manifest themselves not only in the structure of social classes but also in the structure of many of our institutions, e.g., political, economic, religious, and educational. These too are largely hierarchical in structure and hence may be conceived as environmental supports for authoritarianism. The dynamic interaction between competitive values, institutions, and personality is well expressed by Margaret Mead when she writes: "There have been many recent studies to show that modern economy not only produces a certain type of character but is in turn dependent upon that type of character to perpetuate its peculiar institutions" (13:524).

Role

Of particular relevance to the school administrator who is attempting to work within a genuinely democratic framework is a recognition of the importance of *role* as a determinant of authoritarian behavior. Sargent defines role as ". . . a pattern or type of social behavior which seems situationally appropriate to the individual in terms of the demands and expectations of those in his group" (22:279).

While it is not possible to go into a detailed discussion of the psychology and sociology of role behavior, it may suffice for our present purposes to say that here are many roles which an individual takes and that his behavior will vary accordingly. These roles vary with such factors as age, sex, occupation, prestige, position in the family, and membership in social groups. The way a particular person takes a particular role is a function of both cultural and personality factors. To a certain extent all

individuals taking a particular role (e.g., mother role, employer role) behave in a prescribed fashion. At the same time, there is much room for individual differences in role behavior because of the existence of personality differences. No two individuals act out the same role in exactly the same way. Furthermore, a person frequently selects certain roles in order to satisfy personality needs.² Thus, the process is a highly dynamic one. Personality and environment interact to determine role behavior.

As we have already indicated, there are many social situations within our culture which involve a hierarchical organization of two or more people having different rights, duties, and obligations. Corresponding to these situations are various prescribed roles and reciprocal roles which define to a great extent the kinds of relationships that are possible. Some of these roles are characteristically submissive in nature—for example, child, wife, soldier, and employee roles. Other roles are characteristically dominative in nature. The roles of boss, administrator, father, first sergeant, college president, and corporation president are cases in point. In other words, in a hierarchically structured organization it is frequently very difficult to behave in a democratic fashion. The submissive employee behaves not so submissively when he becomes a foreman or employer. When the docile buck private finally becomes first sergeant it is all but impossible for him to continue in his docile role. The pro-rent-control tenant becomes the anti-rent-control role. The teacher who criticizes the principal for his anti-landlord. The teacher who criticizes the principal for his anti-democratic administration frequently behaves in like fashion himself when he takes over the principal's role. Thus it is seen that as the situation changes for a person so does the role; and with it behavior, perceptions, motives, attitudes, and values change too.

The administrator's role, then, by its very nature demands at least a minimum of dominative behavior. Seen in this light, the

² For a further elaboration of this, particularly in a hierarchical institutional structure, see Merton's discussion of the "bureaucratic personality" (14).

task of educating the school administrator to assume a more democratic orientation is difficult because it involves an attempt to change the administrator role from what it has traditionally been to what it should be in a genuinely democratic framework. But in another sense this task should not be so difficult. There is, after all, an important difference between, say, a business administrator and a school administrator. The function of the former is to maximize profits; the function of the latter is to maximize learning which most experts are agreed can best take place within a genuinely democratic framework.

Dynamic Determinants

There are numerous situations in which a person finds himself that may not necessarily call forth prescribed role behavior as such but which nonetheless can be seen to result in one or another form of antidemocratic behavior. We refer here to situations in which people feel insecure or frustrated. Eric Fromm (7) and others have already pointed out how the insecure German people were willing to "escape from freedom" by accepting an authoritarian leader and embracing an authoritarian philosophy. That this is a broad principle which is not necessarily applicable only to Germany after World War I is suggested by the fact that with the increasing insecurity arising from the ideological struggle between East and West there has occurred a change in the social atmosphere in this country as compared to that of an earlier period. This may be characterized as a drift increasingly away from rather than increasingly toward a democratic orientation. At the present writing there is somewhat less tolerance for divergent views than there was a decade ago. There have been more encroachments on academic freedom, on civil rights, and the like during the last ten years. The total situation is different.

Insecurity will lead to authoritarianism not only within the total cultural framework but also in more localized situations. The school administrator who is functioning in a frame of ref-

erence which is threatening and hence makes him insecure in his position may become impatient with the democratic process. He may feel that it is more efficient to proceed without consulting or taking into account the wishes of his staff. Or he may assume a pseudo-democratic façade which fools no one but himself. He may, for example, consult with his staff on minor issues but fail to consult with them on major issues on the ground that since he alone bears the responsibility he alone must make the decisions. In the same vein, he may be reluctant to delegate responsibility for fear that the job will be bungled and that he will be held to blame. Or if he does delegate responsibility it will be only for minor functions. And even here the insecure administrator frequently feels compelled to "check up on" and "push" his staff to insure that the delegated task will be successfully consummated. It is in this way, he feels, that his position may be made more secure. Actually, the reverse is nearer the truth.

Closely related to the preceding is the problem of frustration. Authoritarian domination of one person by another is usually a highly frustrating experience for the one being dominated. In accordance with the frustration-aggression hypothesis we may expect that the response to this frustration will be aggression. Anderson's finding that "domination incites dominative behavior in a companion" (2:407) is consistent with this hypothesis. In this connection it is important to note another finding of Anderson, namely, that "integrative behavior induces integrative behavior in a companion" (2:407); that is, a permissive, helpful democratic attitude on the part of one person leads to integrative, spontaneous, and constructive behavior on the part of the person he is interacting with.

Frequently, however, it is not possible to respond aggressively to an authority figure because of fear of retaliation, loss of job, etc. Such a state of affairs is likely to lead to the *displacement* of aggression from the feared authority figure to less feared objects—subordinates, minority groups, etc. This is the famil-

iar phenomenon of "scapegoating" which is characteristically antidemocratic. Thus, Miller and Bugelski have reported an experiment in which ". . . young men at a camp were asked to indicate their attitudes toward Japanese and Mexicans before and after a situation which involved the frustration of giving up attending bank night at the local theater and taking hard tests instead. After the frustration they attributed a smaller number of desirable traits and a larger number of undesirable traits to these foreigners who could not possibly have been to blame for the situation" (15:441).

Sometimes frustration may lead to a displacement of aggression which is even more ferocious than the aggression of the original instigator. This can be illustrated in several ways. The first is illustrated in the social behavior of birds. Koffka writes:

If one compares the behaviour of the bird at the top of the pecking list, the despot, with that of one very far down, the second or third from the last, then one finds the latter much more cruel to the few others over whom he lords it than the former in his treatment of all members. As soon as one removes from the group all members above the penultimate, his behaviour becomes milder and may even become very friendly. . . . It is not difficult to find analogies to this in human societies, and therefore one side of such behaviour must be primarily the effect of the social groupings, and not of individual characteristics" (10:669).

Similar examples involving human beings are not lacking. A case in point is the typically lower-class phenomenon of lynching which is often accompanied by extreme brutality. Another is Bettelheim's observation of the cruelty to older prisoners in a German concentration camp who "when in charge of others, often behaved worse than the Gestapo" (4:637).

THE EFFECTS OF DEMOCRATIC AND AUTHORITARIAN ATMOSPHERES UPON BEHAVIOR

Thus far the discussion has been focused on the person who is oriented democratically or antidemocratically; it has explored some of the personal and environmental factors which are likely to be associated with or to lead to such behavior. But

what of the effects of the behavior of the authoritarian or democratic leader on the behavior of others? Evidence from studies conducted primarily in this country suggests that, in general, authoritarian domination leads to feelings of frustration in people subjected to it. This is not to say that authoritarian domination always leads to frustration. In some cultures and even in a democratic culture there are individuals who prefer authoritarianism to democracy. Fromm's notion that in some cultures and under certain conditions people find democracy rather than authoritarianism frustrating has already been mentioned. They try to "escape from freedom." They embrace an authoritarian way of life because obedience to a leader and order promises greater security.

In a country accustomed to a democratic tradition, authoritarian domination usually results in a feeling of frustration. This in turn leads to a variety of ways in which individuals may respond. Below are summarized the kinds of behavior which might be expected as a result of authoritarian domination. These are contrasted with those to be expected in a more democratic atmosphere. This summary is based both on the results of several researches (3, 11, 12) which have investigated this problem and on the writer's own observations. This summary, incidentally, might also be useful as a sort of check list for the potential or actual administrator who is interested in evaluating his own group atmosphere.

Effects of Democratic Atmosphere

1. More "we-feeling"; more frequent use of "we," "us," "ours."
2. "Group-minded suggestions"; relatively few demands for individual attention.
3. Positive identification with whole group, including leaders and nonleaders.
4. Relatively greater group cohesion as a result of positive group identification.

Effects of Authoritarian Atmosphere

1. More "I-feeling"; more frequent use of "I," "me," "mine."
2. Suggestions more designed to command individual attention from leader.
3. No group identification; identification with the leader rather than with the group.
4. Relatively less group cohesion. Sometimes the group may unite to rebel or defy the

Effects of Democratic Atmosphere

5. Greater group productivity.
6. Group activity begins before leader arrives and continues during his absence.
7. Greater job satisfaction.
8. Higher morale.
9. Few or no rumors.
10. Relatively little aggression toward leader and other members. Generally more friendly behavior.
11. When frustrated, aggression is directed toward the real source of aggression.
12. Relatively little "gripping" about leader; fewer "gripe sessions."
13. Relatively little "horseplay."
14. Relatively less dependence on leader.
15. Relatively less submissiveness toward leader.
16. Greater liking for leader.
17. Relatively broader time perspective; perception of present in relation to past and future.
18. Greater variability and flexibility of behavior.
19. Satisfaction at a reality level.

Effects of Authoritarian Atmosphere

- leader, but this sort of cohesiveness is temporary and does not necessarily indicate the existence of genuine group identification.
5. Less group productivity.
6. Group activity decreases with absence of leader and increases with his presence.
7. Less job satisfaction.
8. Lower morale.
9. Relatively more anxiety about the present and future, leading to the formation and spreading of rumors.
10. Considerable aggression toward other members.
11. Greater tendency to displace aggression to "scapegoats," strangers, newcomers. Under some circumstances, perhaps when frustration is very great, apathy and inwardly directed aggression are evident.
12. Considerable "gripping" about leader; more "gripe sessions."
13. Considerable "horseplay."
14. Overdependence on leader. In extreme situations, there may be regression toward childlike dependence.
15. Considerable submission toward leader.
16. Greater dislike of leader.
17. Shorter time perspective; inability to perceive present in relation to past and future; piecemeal rather than whole perception of problems.
18. Greater rigidity of behavior.
19. Satisfaction on a fantasy level.

This summary probably does not exhaust all the differences we might find on the effect of authoritarian and democratic atmospheres. Further research will undoubtedly bring out other differences. However, what is at present known about the differential effects of the two kinds of atmospheres, even if incomplete, is impressive enough to leave no room for doubt about their relative merits in furthering the educational process.

QUESTIONS

1. Did your teachers exhibit the kind of authoritarian pattern described in this chapter? What caused them to behave in an authoritarian manner?
2. Who were the scapegoats in the public school you attended? Did the personalities of the scapegoats tend to follow a common pattern? Were the same people scapegoats consistently?
3. Who of your friends has the most authoritarian personality? What does he do that causes you to feel this way about him? Is it what he does or the spirit with which he does it that classifies him as authoritarian?
4. Who of your friends is the most democratic? Why do you so classify him? Do other people also feel that he is democratic in actions and behavior?
5. What is the relationship between frustration and aggression? Are all frustrated people aggressive? Are all aggressive people frustrated?
6. Are public-school administrators generally people with authoritarian personalities? Does the present structure of administration cause them to be authoritarian?

PROBLEM

Describe the kind of home that will develop democratic personalities. Would there be any restrictions in this home? How would the family pattern be different from that in the authoritarian home?

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Part Two

Applications of Democratic Educational Leadership

V

School and Community Development

In an earlier chapter reference was made to improving the community by means of programs of democratic action. The point was made and developed that the source of education stems from a community setting. Now the question arises as to how the administrator can work most effectively with people in a community school program. Our approach to this problem will be directed to the question: Can the school be a vital force in all-round community improvement? The answer to this question is being sought in Michigan where, for the past five years, five rural communities have been participating in a demonstration research program designed to put the community school concept to a rigorous experimental test. This project, the Community School Service Program sponsored by the Department of Public Instruction and financed by the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, is testing the assumption that a local school system, well organized, well led, well supported, and working in coöperation with other agencies, can by means of its services and executive energies contribute significantly to the goodness of living in the community.

The original five participating communities—Elkton, Con-

cord, Rockford, Mesick, and Stephenson—were selected in the spring of 1946. Recently three other communities—Allegan, Bronson, and Newberry—were added. The largest of these, Allegan, has a population of 5000 in the city proper. In each of these towns the Board of Education, as the sponsor, has agreed that the school will serve as the focal point in a program of community self-improvement.

For purposes of planning, action, and evaluation it was necessary to establish criteria to determine whether or not a school was actually a community school. For these purposes the following characteristics of a community school were agreed upon: (1) The school is closely identified with the social, economic, political, and ethical life of the community and with the personal life of the residents, and the curriculum is designed to meet realistically the needs of the community and its individual members. (2) The school utilizes in its educational program all types of community resources, including the services of community agencies and the capabilities of individual citizens as well as material resources. (3) The school, in its turn, serves the entire community through participating in projects for community betterment, providing leaders and leadership training, and enabling full utilization of its plant by the community; it also acts as an integrating force in community life. (4) It relates the people of the community to the outside world by helping them avail themselves of the services of state, regional, and national community-serving agencies and by interpreting the relationship of the local community to conditions, issues, and problems of the larger society. (5) It is democratic in its administrative and instructional policies and practices and in its community relationships.

It was not until the program had been in operation three years that the school could be said to have assumed a new role—that of a more integral and vital agency for all-round community improvement. More and more people became active in community programs. They began to realize that community

improvement and public education have many common purposes. There were many encouraging examples of school-community projects in which local resources and local needs were brought into proper relationship. These and other accomplishments which will be described later have tremendous implications not only for other communities in Michigan, but for the nation as a whole.

The superintendent of schools has been a key figure in the program. However, he has been forced into a different type of leadership. The work done by the people on action committees engaged in identifying and solving community problems has inevitably led to new demands on the school. It has also resulted in a new concept on the part of the residents, pupils, and school people of the responsibilities of the superintendent. The people on the participating communities have had proved to them beyond doubt that school and community planning and improvement condition each other. Therefore, the superintendent has gradually been placed in a community framework which demands that he assume new responsibilities: (1) as a technician who marshals the forces of the school to coöperate with individuals seeking to better community life by discovering and meeting a variety of needs; (2) as a professional worker who can bring the resources of local and outside agencies to bear on community problems; (3) as a leader whose leadership takes the direction of helping lay people, students, and teachers determine school and community needs and a program of action rather than predetermining what the group should do; (4) as an administrator who recognizes that school and civil administration have many common purposes and that coöperation in these areas is essential; and (5) as an educator who realizes that the school is not the only educational agency in the community and that he is in the best position to coördinate the efforts of all agencies having educational responsibilities.

Since the program has been in operation on the local level only five years, it is still very definitely in the experimental

stage. The people on the participating communities are still striving to discover ways of making the most effective use of their talents and resources.

It is the function of the Michigan Department of Public Instruction to provide assistance in three general areas: (1) providing consultant and technical service, (2) relating community needs and the services of the various state agencies, and (3) training local residents to discover and solve their own problems.

A state advisory committee, broadly representative of the many interests involved in the project and drawing on the resources of state agencies and lay groups, aids in the overall planning. Its members include the heads of the state departments of agriculture, conservation, health, and social welfare; the president of a state teachers college; the editor of a farm journal; the dean of the state agricultural college; farmers; and superintendents of schools. In addition to assisting in planning the program at the state level, members of this committee have been especially interested in seeing how the services of the various state agencies can be recast better to meet the needs of the people in rural Michigan.

Organization varies in the different communities, but there is a general pattern which includes study committees of approximately twenty members in the areas of health, education, religion, home and family living, recreation, trade and industry, and farm practice and management. Administration of the local program has been delegated to a central committee composed of representatives, usually the chairmen, of the study committees.

THE PROGRAM WAS CAREFULLY INTRODUCED

The superintendents of the original five participating schools were called to Lansing in April, 1946. Two days were devoted to a discussion of community school philosophy. The superintendents and staff members of the Department of Public In-

struction formulated a general plan for introducing the program in the local communities. Other steps at this phase of the program were as follows:

1. A meeting in Lansing of a group consisting of five or six key laymen from each community. These people were invited by the superintendents and boards of education. They met to discuss the philosophy of the program and to offer suggestions for it.
2. Individual faculty meetings in each community. These were called for the purpose of presenting the program and obtaining suggestions concerning the role the school might play.
3. A meeting of a group of approximately thirty-five people in each community. Each of the five or six delegates to the key laymen conference at Lansing invited six other people to attend. They heard the program described and also offered suggestions regarding it.
4. A meeting to which all the residents of each community were invited. Although part of this group had previously heard about the program, this was the first time that it was presented to the people in the entire community. At this meeting temporary steering committees of ten members were selected. Those attending this meeting indicated on survey cards their areas of interest in working on community problems.
5. Meetings of the temporary steering committees. These meetings were held to discuss potential members of the permanent study committees and to draw up plans for a local Community School Service Program organization.
6. Planning conference of superintendents of participating schools. This conference was called to plan a preschool conference for the combined faculties of the participating schools. The preschool conference was held to discuss the role of the school in the Community School Service Program.
7. Preschool conference for combined faculties of participating schools. Several days were devoted to studying ways in

which the schools could become a vital force in all-round community improvement.

8. Local study committee meetings. These meetings were designed to study ways of determining community needs and of planning to meet them.

This procedure was, of course, merely a guide; the exact pattern was not followed in any one community.

LOCAL LEADERSHIP WAS STRESSED

One of the most important functions of the Community School Service Program at the state level is to assist in the education of local leaders. The aim is to assist in training both community and school leaders to work coöperatively in improving the quality of community living. The activities in the training program are varied to include adult classes, training conferences, workshops, local forums, and trips to other localities to study successful community improvement programs.

The Role of Local Elective Officials Was Studied

The Training Institute for Local Elective Officials which was sponsored by the Stephenson Public Schools is an example of one type of training project. This local project developed from a conference for elective officials in the five participating communities which was sponsored by the University of Michigan. The Training Institute was attended by 125 township, village, and school-board officials. The township group gave most of its attention to the problem of assessing farm property. The majority of the supervisors favored a special training program for assessing officers. They also discussed the advisability of employing an outside assessing agency, as a neighboring county had done. The supervisors were warned by people from the Michigan Municipal League and the University of Michigan to get the county assessments in order before the state moved in to force such action on the county.

The village officers devoted much of their time to discussing the city-manager form of government. Village budget making also came in for a large share of attention. The people from the Municipal League and the university discussed legislation affecting village government. The school-board members reviewed the county-wide school-district reorganization plan which was designed as the result of a study made by the people of the county with the technical assistance of a staff member of the Sociology Department of Michigan State College. The members of this group requested that similar meetings be held in the future to plan and carry out the school-district reorganization program. Problems of finance and school buildings were discussed with members of the Department of Public Instruction.

The merits of this conference, as listed by the participants, included (1) an opportunity for the officials to get acquainted with one another and to exchange information concerning their problems, (2) an understanding by the officials of the need for training for public office, (3) assistance with specific problems, (4) an opportunity to become familiar with the services of the state agencies which are available to local communities, (5) a challenge to the participants to do a better job in the offices to which they have been elected, and (6) a better understanding of the Community School Service Program.

Instruction in Leadership Was Provided

Michigan State College conducted an extension class in Elkton which was attended by fifty lay people in the community and the school faculty. Members of this class listed as their objectives (1) a study of techniques to be used to identify school and community problems, (2) an evaluation of the present school curriculum, and (3) an examination of current educational literature. The participants were enthusiastic about this course, which afforded the teachers and lay people an opportu-

nity to work together in examining the local school program. A young minister, new to the community, made these comments about the course:

I personally felt that its greatest value and at the same time its danger lay in the fact that it was a pioneering project as far as our community was concerned. For some time we had to feel our way through the maze of so many thoughts and approaches to the questions facing us. However, even here we found that each could, if he wished, benefit by the exchange of ideas. Another factor which I considered important was that it brought the community leaders into a faculty experience and helped them to appreciate the teacher's task of attempting to tie the entire life of the child into his classroom experience and bring the school into the community. I appreciated the splendid group of resource persons that was available and while in some measure I did not agree with all of their ideas, I find myself much better equipped in my profession as a minister, to understand and, in understanding, better equipped to help meet the needs of the people of our community. The informality of group discussion of a problem such as ours made it interesting to each one. It was our problem, and its solution, I feel, is our responsibility.

The training phase of the program included such other activities as trips by residents of the five communities to Decatur, Illinois, to study the recreation program. The members of this group saw in action a year-round recreation program which included people of all ages. Another group went to Naperville, Illinois, to study how that community solved the housing problem. They learned that a member of the high-school faculty worked with the veterans in planning and financing low-cost homes.

Several leadership training conferences were held. These conferences were designed to afford those attending an opportunity to participate in using group discussion techniques, to exchange information, to study community organization, and to learn how to conduct a community survey.

THE SERVICES OF STATE AGENCIES WERE MOBILIZED

One of the most significant contributions of the program has been that it gave the people in the small communities a better

understanding of the services available from tax-supported state agencies. The Extension Division of the University of Michigan, Michigan State College, Central Michigan College of Education, and other institutions of higher learning coöperated with local school systems in conducting such classes as leadership training, home planning, and community surveying. The University of Michigan and Michigan State College also assisted in the county-wide training programs for elective officials. Better library programs have been developed by local library committees with the assistance of the Michigan State Library. The health committees have worked with the Michigan Department of Health in the development of health programs and the planning of health centers. The Department of Conservation coöperated with the school systems in developing school camping programs. Other state agencies participated in making surveys and in planning local action programs.

IMPROVEMENT PROJECTS WERE INITIATED

Although the Community School Service Program has been in operation on the local level only five years, many school and community action programs have been completed. A listing of some of the programs in one community reveals the scope of the local programs. In this community the projects sponsored by the action committees of twenty or twenty-five members included the following programs:

1. *County Library.* The Education Committee gathered data which convinced the Board of Supervisors that the county library should be moved from the county seat, located at the far end of the county, to the local community which is centrally located in the county. They sponsored the renovation of the first floor of the township hall to house the library. A group of community people visited other county libraries to gather ideas for their local programs. At a community meeting the chairman of this committee, a serious-minded farmer, became incensed at the remark, "Farmers

are only interested in Wild West stories anyway," and got the high-school English class interested in making a survey of the reading habits of the people in the community area. After receiving training in how to conduct an interview, the members of the high-school English class served as interviewers and were successful in interviewing approximately 200 people.

The results of this survey indicated plainly that the remark was far from the truth. The library is now serving several times as many people as were reached previously. Its program now includes neighborhood book clubs, a bookmobile, and various types of forums. One of the interesting features of the library program is the neighborhood book clubs. The people in the neighborhood gather at the home of one of the members for a discussion hour at the time the bookmobile is scheduled to visit. The people in the neighborhood enjoy the social opportunities as well as the discussion with the representative of the county library. This technique also makes it possible for the librarian to serve a greater number of people. Another popular feature of the library is the weekly storytelling hour for children. Several mothers in the community were trained in storytelling and now conduct storytelling hours for children in the library reading room.

2. *Soil Conservation Campaign.* A Conservation Field Day was sponsored by the Land Use Committee. Approximately 3000 farmers attended a farm face-lifting demonstration on the farm of a World War II veteran who was a student at the Veterans Agricultural Institute of the high school. Scientific know-how and machines teamed up to undo in one day what years of neglect had done to this farm. Farm implement dealers, sending many types of mechanical equipment, were assigned noncompetitive tasks that were completed in one day. Seventy acres of land were made available for crops. Most of the operations were familiar to most

farmers, but it was the first time that the various operations were combined to show what can be done to restore a run-down farm to productivity. The operations included bulldozing; mechanical rock picking; plowing; many kinds of seed-bed preparation with varied equipment—plows, disks, field cultivators, and harrows; and the use of a sprinkling system. The day showed farmers how, with equipment they already own, they can do a better job of working the soil.

This project was an outgrowth of a trip by members of the Community School Service Program Land Use Committee to a similar soil Conservation Field Day in another state. The visit resulted in a decision to conduct such a demonstration in the local community.

As part of a preschool conference, members of this committee visited farms with members of the high-school faculty. They saw and discussed good soil conservation practices in operation.

3. *Fire Prevention Campaign.* The fire insurance rates in the rural parts of the community seemed excessively high to members of the Community Services Committee. The members of this committee agreed that the first step in a fire prevention program would be to launch an educational campaign involving the use of films which would be loaned to all agencies in the area. The committee agreed to send a representative with the films to stress the need for fire prevention education. However, they were unable to locate films which would tell the story of fire prevention in rural areas. After numerous letters to many national and state agencies the committee learned that no films were available to any community for an extended period of time. Representatives from several fire insurance companies were invited to meet with the committee, for it wanted to learn whether any insurance company would be interested in preparing films which would meet the needs of an educational campaign for fire prevention in rural areas. The in-

insurance company representatives agreed that the matter might be discussed among insurance men, and they felt confident that something could be done to secure appropriate films or even to make new ones. The matter of films was discussed at the national insurance underwriters convention. Since that time films have been available for use by members of the Community Services Committee.

4. *County Park Project.* The County Board of Supervisors and the County Road Commission responded to the request of the Community Services Committee to help develop and promote a recreation area for the people of the community. When the park is completed, it will include picnic tables, a playground, and fishing facilities both for residents of the area and for tourists.
5. *Bridge and Entrance to the Village.* The Trade and Industry Committee and the City Council gathered data which persuaded the State Highway Department to construct a new bridge at the entrance to the community. For years people had been talking about the need for a new bridge, but it was not until this committee was formed that a group felt any responsibility for going ahead with the project. The bridge is now completed. It has improved traffic safety and has made the entrance to the town more attractive.
6. *Landscaping Project.* A landscaping project was sponsored by the Home and Family Living Committee. Members of fifteen families enrolled in this course, which met once a week for twelve weeks. As part of the regular class work the members landscaped their own homes. This project created a great deal of interest among other people in the community and has resulted in community-wide interest in beautifying home surroundings.
7. *Religious Survey.* The Religious Committee conducted a religious survey during the winter months. Approximately fifty people from the various churches in the community assisted in collecting data for the survey. These people visited

several hundred homes in the community to determine such things as church preference, church attendance, and the type of religious program the people would like the churches to offer. The fact that these fifty people talked with hundreds of others in the community about religious problems resulted in a renewed interest in religious life. This was reflected in church attendance. As an outgrowth of this survey the committee felt that it was an opportune time to form a community choir of people from the various churches. The choir is taking part in programs in the rural areas as well as in the village.

8. *Adult Education Program.* The Education Committee and the school sponsored such classes as the following:
 - a. *Home Planning.* One of the faculty members got from the village clerk a list of the people who had applied for building permits and invited them to attend this class. Approximately forty husbands and wives spent several weeks making plans for their homes with members of the staff of the University of Michigan.
 - b. *Yarncraft.* Sixty-five women within a twenty-mile radius of the school enrolled in classes in elementary and advanced yarncraft. Many of the women are selling their products to department stores in larger cities. The superintendent of schools considers that the most significant outcome of these classes is that a large number of women became active for the first time in such school activities as home-room clubs and the Parent-Teachers Association.
 - c. *Photography.* This class started with a few high-school students but soon included not only a large number of high-school students but many of the parents as well. Inquiry revealed that at least fifteen darkrooms have been built in local homes as a result of this project.
 - d. *Millinery.* The kindergarten teacher attended summer school to obtain training in hat making. This course has

proved so popular that there is a waiting list. Women not only are making hats for themselves but some of them are selling hats to stores in other communities.

- e. *Classes for Truck Drivers and Volunteer Firemen.* The school sponsored classes for training truck drivers and members of the volunteer fire department. The members of these classes are enthusiastic about the merits of this training and have asked for additional courses.
9. *Crafts Coöperative.* One of the projects of the Education Committee was the organization of a community hobby crafts coöperative for various craft commodities made in adult education classes and by physically handicapped shut-ins and sold to the general public. One merchant agreed to give the committee space in his store as a salesroom. Articles sold included knitted and braided rugs, aprons, mittens, handkerchiefs, wooden lawn decorations, evergreen wreaths, book ends, boxes of candy and fruit, and decorated plates. This project proved especially helpful to the shut-ins who, in addition to receiving instruction in making these handicraft items, also realized a considerable amount of money.
10. *Quality Milk Program.* As a result of the work of the Health Committee, tests of the local milk supply were made to determine its purity and quality. The results of the tests indicated plainly that the milk being supplied residents of the community did not meet proper health standards. Aroused public interest in this problem soon resulted in a new pasteurization plant in the community and the replacement of obsolete equipment in the local dairy.
11. *Recreation Program.* As a result of the trip to Decatur, Illinois, mentioned earlier in the chapter, members of the Recreation Committee have been working to develop a year-round recreation program which will eventually include people of all ages. One of the outstanding accomplishments of this committee is a supervised playground program dur-

ing the summer months. In the morning games are conducted for children nine and over; in the afternoon there is swimming in a nearby river. Children from four to nine years of age attend a nursery school presided over by a different mother each day of the week. Similar programs have been organized in four neighborhood centers in the community area. For the older boys a softball league has been organized with eight teams from the various neighborhoods in the community. The committee has also sponsored dances for the teen-agers under the direction of the high-school student council, with parents and teachers participating. For the adults, old-time dances, archery, skiing, and hiking programs have been inaugurated.

12. *School Camp.* Under the leadership of the Education Committee the outdoors is being used as a laboratory for community education, with a unique school camp program being conducted at a state park group camp. This beautiful camp, owned by the state and surrounded by thousands of acres of woodland and lakes, has become an integral part of the school. Sponsored by the Board of Education, boys and girls of elementary-school age in the community have an opportunity to attend camp for a period of one week or more during the summer months. A staff of teachers from the school have been trained to help boys and girls learn in the outdoors. Stress is placed on the things that can be learned best in the out-of-doors and that supplement the regular program of the school. These include experiences in social living, healthful living, purposeful work, and outdoor recreation. Children learn by doing—through building trails, constructing facilities, planting trees, building brush shelters, and improving the camp property. On the wooded trails they find real opportunities to learn about plants and animals and to get first-hand acquaintance with the interrelationships of living beings and the soil.
This camp offers an opportunity for new relationships be-

tween students and between children and teachers. A frequent reaction of the children is, "We find that our teachers are real human beings." Other typical evaluative statements are: "We like the camp because we have a part in planning the program." "We have real experiences in the out-of-doors instead of reading in books and looking at pictures." "We learn to understand one another and solve our problems together."

The camp has become an established part of the educational program of the community. Every group of children that goes to it increases community interest in the camp and in its support. The time is rapidly approaching when the camp can be used the year round, making it possible for every boy and girl in the community to have camping and outdoor education experience of this type.

13. *Artificial Breeders Association.* The members of the Agriculture Committee thought that their major problem was improving the quality of milk in the area. One of the suggestions made was that a trip be planned to an outside community that was doing an outstanding job on a quality milk program. The trip was arranged and was made by five members. The group was given a detailed explanation of the operations of an artificial breeding association with respect to a quality milk program. They soon decided that a similar plan might be a partial answer to improving the quality of milk in their locality. An Artificial Breeders Association was formed and at the present time the owners of 3600 cows have been enrolled in the program.
14. *School Curriculum Study.* Teachers, students, and lay people carried on an intensive curriculum study with a view to modifying and improving the school program in terms of the community school philosophy. Some of the courses already in the curriculum were revised in terms of the needs pointed out by the surveys mentioned previously. Such subjects as preparation for home and family living, leadership

training, and community study were added. The preparation for home and family living course was an outgrowth of a series of twelve weekly community meetings, with an average attendance of eighty-five people, to determine problems which confronted the families in the community. As these problems were listed during the meetings, it became evident to the teachers, students, and parents that many of them should be given attention in the school program. High-school students were members of local action committees. Their experiences on these committees led them to request a class which would give them training in conducting meetings, using various group discussion techniques, and conducting panel discussions and forums. The students also received training in making community studies. They have participated in using survey questionnaires, in interviewing, and in interpreting survey results.

The fact that teachers and students are members of various action committees makes it possible for them to be aware of community problems as they are identified and to recognize these problems in the school program.

15. *Trade and Industry Survey.* The Trade and Industry Committee made a thorough study of economic conditions in the community. It included such items as available labor supply, transportation facilities, and prevailing wage rates. This information was furnished to representatives of industries who were seeking a location. At least one new business enterprise has located in this community as a result of the study.

CERTAIN OUTCOMES GRADUALLY BECAME APPARENT

More than 200 people have been active in the Community School Service Program in the community just mentioned. The fifty people who evaluated the program in that community make the following suggestions to those who are planning to initiate a program of community improvement:

1. School curriculum modification will be realized only as fast as people in the community change their traditional mode of behavior and become aware of the potentialities of the new community school movement.
2. Neighborhoods in a natural community may become more active if local neighborhood councils are organized to work coöperatively with the larger natural community.
3. To insure continued active participation in projects for community betterment it will be necessary to keep motivating the community to realize fully the ultimate values to society of democratic action.
4. A continued community-school relations program is indispensable in maintaining public approval and support of the Community School Service Program.

The establishment of goals; the collection, organization, and filing of data; and the interpretation of findings have been carried on coöperatively by the directing staff, local study committees, school faculties, and pupils.

On the state level it has been necessary to collect much baseline data. Typical studies of this type cover unmet medical needs (3), problem priorities, and community boundaries. Other evaluation material includes activity reports of staff members, pictorial records of events, newspaper clippings, and minutes of local action committee meetings.

At the local level the people in the participating communities have conducted between forty and fifty surveys in such areas as health, home and family life, trade and industry, education, and religion. These surveys were made with technical assistance provided by several state agencies. The results of these surveys have been used by local committees in planning their action programs.

A typical example of a local study was the health survey made in one of the smaller communities. The chairman was a farm housewife who met with members of the Health Committee to draft the survey schedule. The committee soon felt the need for technical assistance from a member of the state

health department. One person was assigned to interview all the people in an area one mile square. Forty people took part as interviewers.

One evening, while members of the Health Committee were compiling the data, the chairman observed, "We not only found out a lot about health conditions in the community, but got to know one another better, discovered that working for the good of the community was fun, and also found many other problems we didn't know existed in our community."

In the fall of 1949 the Central Committee in each of the communities made a thorough appraisal of the progress and status of the local program from its beginning in 1946. In the Stephenson report, fifty of the leaders who have taken an active part in the local program sum up their observations on community improvement as follows:

1. A community can and will help itself to improve its democratic way of life in all phases of development through proper motivation, leadership, and organization.
2. Communities possess natural leadership that oftentimes remains latent for want of opportunities for action. Only through organized effort will a community make the most of its leadership potentialities for its welfare.
3. The effectiveness of leaders can be greatly increased by training programs specifically designed for the purpose.
4. A voluntary coöperative organization of all the agencies in a community should serve as a coördinating and advisory council for action committees working in the various areas of community life.
5. The school should play a major role and should provide some of the resources for any program or plan for community development. The school and the community are inseparable factors in democratic planning and living. The school should be the common meeting ground for everyone regardless of age, social position, religion, or income.
6. The school curriculum should be reorganized to utilize all the community resources to the best advantage. It must

meet the needs of all the pupils in preparing for citizenship and for making a living.

7. Problem-study committees, responsible to the coördinating council, serve to discover community needs and assist in supporting action programs.
8. Problem-study committee membership should range from ten to twenty-five to assure adequate representation of all interests.
9. Action committees appointed as subcommittees should have a maximum of five members to assure progress in community development.
10. Membership on the action or problem-study committees should be purely voluntary. Efforts should be made to educate the members of the community to the opportunities that are available for making it a better place to live in.
11. The school administrator in a community should become a professional community worker who can serve the school and coöperate with the community in solving its problems for better living. The school staff and student body should be cognizant of how they, too, can share in the efforts for community betterment.
12. Participation in community endeavors is affected by the boundary of the natural community and the neighborhoods. Neighborhoods in the outer area of a large community tend to display a twofold loyalty—to the larger community and to the local neighborhood.

The experience of the people in the participating communities during the past three years gives evidence of the soundness of the community school idea. It must be emphasized again, however, that the program has not been in operation for a period of time sufficient to test the processes that have been utilized.

It is encouraging to see how the people in the participating communities have developed widespread community leadership, have established and strengthened local committee struc-

tures which make it possible to give attention to all areas of community living, have met local problems with action programs, and have used the services of state agencies in meeting these problems. Also significant is the large number of lay people, teachers, pupils, and technicians who are coöperating in drawing up school programs that are beginning to meet the needs of the people served by the school.

The people in the communities taking part in the Community School Service Program are seeking to prove that public education and community improvement have many common purposes. Their lives, they feel, are becoming fuller and richer as a result of their efforts to meet this challenge.

QUESTIONS

1. Why are people hesitant to accept new ideas in education? What can be done to overcome fear of new programs? Are certain classes of people more afraid than others? Do parents have a laissez-faire attitude toward schools? How does people's attitude differ today from agrarian days?
2. How can the school librarian help to change the attitude of people? What is the role of the librarian in community planning? What should be the relationship of the school library to community services?
3. What improvements are needed in your community? What special project would receive strong support there? What projects would be supported in most communities?
4. What role should youth play in the development of community projects? Should youth work with adults in the development of community projects? Should youth work with the faculty in the development of community projects?
5. What should the teacher's place be in the development of community projects? Who should exercise leadership—teachers, adults, or pupils? What are some unique contributions that the teacher can make to community projects?
6. What should the superintendent's place be in the development of community projects? Should the superintendent lead, follow, or stand aloof from the projects, or combine all three? How would you describe the successful leader of community projects?

PROBLEM

Check your own community, or another community if it is more convenient, to find illustrations of administrators who have initiated programs

before the public was ready for them. To reverse the situation, see how many communities have been ready for programs, with the administrator failing to initiate them.

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VI

Using the Democratic Approach in a New Administrative Position

FIRST IMPRESSIONS ARE IMPORTANT

A superintendent's first contacts with a new community are important. If he realizes that first impressions may be lasting ones, he will be extremely careful that his actions are such as to establish faith in himself as a person. He will manifest an inquiring mind and a friendly and sincere approach to people, taking care not to display an attitude of knowing all the answers. His discussions with the real estate man, the secretary of the chamber of commerce, and the dry cleaner have more far-reaching effects than he realizes. Recognizing that democratic action is based on people's feelings toward one another, he will endeavor to seek counsel from his fellow men rather than to appear to have the latest word. Benjamin Franklin expressed this thought well in the old adage: If you want to make a friend, let him help you.

*The Superintendent Must Establish Rapport with the Board of
Education*

The second significant step of the superintendent in a new community is the building of desirable working relations with

the board of education. This board, as a rule, consists of from five to seven persons selected from the community to represent community thinking in the furtherance of an educational system for youth and adults. Establishing rapport with the board, it should be noted, involves more than merely working with a small number of individuals as persons. Many times people are placed on the board of education because certain persons, or groups of people, are supporting a program for change; it may be a minor change, or revolutionary in proportion, but it is change in any case. Such a condition often means that each board member feels a responsibility to gain his particular goal, perhaps, in many instances, against his own better judgment. To be specific, in a particular community a board member was much interested in establishing driver training as part of the regular curriculum but to date had found it impossible to make proper arrangements with the school administration. Another member was particularly interested in establishing a home-bound program, that is, a program for pupils who are educable but not physically able to attend the public school; and he was determined that this should be accomplished in spite of any odds. Still another board member was advocating that the vocational offerings in the high school be emphasized, even if other parts of the program had to suffer. Another was exerting pressure to stress the fundamental skills—reading, writing, and arithmetic. In other words, board members frequently assume their positions with preconceived points of view on what is good or poor education. Any thinking that they do about the school program cannot fail to be colored by self-interest or the interests of the groups they represent.

It becomes the duty of the superintendent, then, to weigh these wishes and desires of the board members in terms of the total program. As an initial step in working with the board of education it is usually expedient for the new superintendent to encourage members to state their views in their own terms, unhampered by his own wishes and desires. Especially is this true

when these ideas are deep convictions rather than passing fancies. When people have deep feelings about a subject, they want to be heard and in many instances they demand that their ideas receive consideration.

Frequently the opinions of board members meet the standards of a good educational program. Whether the ideas are sound or unsound, they mean something to those who believe them. After these points of view have been stated, it may be possible to integrate the board's thinking so that each member's point of view will be expressed at least in part, if not in its entirety. When ideas are completely out of line with the thinking of the group, steps should be taken to save the dignity of those who seem to be in disagreement. If the superintendent and board members are sincere in their attitude, minority members as a rule will accept rejection graciously. In any case, to take lightly or to disregard the thoughts of those who represent the people is to invite resistance when the administrator presents a program or recommends one that has been developed by his entire staff.

The Superintendent Must Listen to the Faculty

Likewise, in a community, the administrator will want to find the tone, the interests and desires of his faculty and associates. Just as the skilled teacher starts with the purposes of pupils, so should the administrator work with problems that are of concern to members of the school personnel. How this information is gathered will depend upon the many different factors in each situation. Informal group meetings where people feel free to express their ideas have proved successful with many administrators. Much information may be gathered through informal personal contacts that come from social interaction—in the home, about the building, at a picnic, or in casual conversation going to or from the school. If personalities are not involved, people may be asked to react freely toward improvement of the educational program. Whatever teachers think is important the ad-

ministrator should consider important, at least in the beginning stages of faculty interaction. The administrator needs to know what the school personnel believes to be desirable practice in education.

THE SUPERINTENDENT AND BOARD OF EDUCATION MUST BUILD A
PROGRAM COÖPERATIVELY

Since the board of education is the legislative body of the school district, the superintendent will find himself spending many hours with its members in formal meetings. The purpose of these meetings will include problems of the moment as well as long-range planning for the school system. Most superintendents recognize that it is very easy to become involved with the mechanics of a meeting. Often such matters as finance and attendance have more dramatic appeal to board members than the school curriculum itself.

It should be remembered that, though many members of boards of education may be well educated, they are busily engaged in making a living for themselves and their families in endeavors other than the educational field. This means that most of them do not have the time or the opportunity to keep abreast of educational trends. With this in mind, it has been found helpful to set aside a certain portion of each board meeting specifically for talks about the philosophy of the school. It gives an opportunity to meet, in the order of priority of need, the educational problem which needs to be interpreted to the board members. One must not gather from this that educational problems and financial problems can be separated; but the regular discussion of problems of child growth as they apply in the schoolroom, often with the assistance of a teacher and perhaps a principal, receives a lot more attention if they can be isolated from the general run of the board's business. This plan has been found very effective and has resulted in a period during the board meeting that is looked forward to by the members because they feel they are getting an accurate and sincere account

of the things that are happening in their schools. It is obvious that this affords an opportunity for the administrator to make recommendations for improvement if the program is not functioning satisfactorily. What is meant here is that he will be as frank in stating weaknesses as in mentioning things that warrant commendation. This technique gives board members confidence in the administration and a vision of the things that may and should be done.

An illustration of a particular topic of discussion may be helpful at this point. It centered around the process used in the selection of a geography textbook. Each board member was furnished an identical copy of the new book. In leafing through the book it was easy to note the excellent photography which makes today's books attractive, the organization of material around the daily life of children, and, most important of all, the necessity today of looking at the whole world as one large community. It was also natural for the members to discuss the textbook in its proper relationship to other tools of instruction. Lastly, it afforded an excellent opportunity to show the function of the classroom teacher, the curriculum director, and the administrator in the selection of a textbook. The opportunities for discussing school philosophy in an effective manner in short sessions of this kind are unlimited. An administrator needs only to use his imagination to see many such avenues of approach.

One of the most important functions of a superintendent with his board is the development of policies. In this role he has an obligation to exert skillful leadership in order that board members, members of the staff, and all others who participate may grow and improve during the process. In exercising true leadership the administrator will avoid capitalizing on the prestige of his position. Many administrators are able to capture the minds of individual board members because the latter have such high confidence in the administrator's ability. Frequently an administrator can easily maneuver board members to see things his way. The members may thus become rubber stamps. With

these things in mind the administrator must recognize that decisions which are reached by the entire board, although they may not always agree with his own, are safer than decisions made solely by himself. He must pledge himself to see that all ideas have a fair hearing. He must recognize that each person has some contribution to make. He must recognize that while action with a group of board members may seem slow, this is really the most efficient and most solid way to approach a problem. In terms of setting policies with the board of education an administrator cannot separate himself from his board and its success, but he works hard at the job of administration. He is the idea man; he suggests and proposes; he turns his knowledge to account by finding ways out of dilemmas; he makes the detailed study of problems faced by the board; he gets routine tasks performed, furnishes the facts, encourages and interprets so that the board can make proper decisions.

An administrator may find himself in a small school where, as far as numbers are concerned, he may work with the entire staff as a planning group. He may likewise find himself in a school where there are too many staff members; in this case he may want to use a faculty council for this purpose. Whichever the situation, he will find that the function which this group performs is essentially the same. By and large the staff members are well prepared to contribute to the school's objectives through effective work. The administrator should remember that a professional staff is composed of individuals who understand the relationship between content in subject-matter fields and effective living. He will find that they understand in some degree the growth and development of children, young and old. He will find that they understand the use of the major areas of living, such as conservation of resources, intergroup relations, etc., and the importance of these in the teaching field. When the personnel is too numerous for complete representation, it will be well to develop a plan for utilizing faculty assistance

from all buildings. Before setting up such a plan an administrator should answer the following questions:

1. Should such organizations as the Federation of Teachers, National Education Association, local teachers' club, or other teacher organizations form the basis of membership in a central committee?
2. Should a central organization be set up around the buildings, in which case representation might be based on the number of faculty members in each building?
3. Should this faculty committee be set up around problems which are identified by the entire group and the members who have the greatest interest in them chosen to work on these problems? In this case the head of each of these interest groups would form a central committee.

The only conclusion which may be drawn here is that an administrator should set up the type of organization that is most effective in his community.

A REPRESENTATIVE PLAN IS OFTEN NECESSARY

The following suggestive plan may overcome some of the difficulties mentioned above. The faculty in each building could be asked to select one person from their midst whom they consider to be an educational leader, who has insight into school problems, and who enjoys working with his fellow teachers. The people thus selected would form a planning committee for and with the superintendent. The job of this committee would be to set up the machinery for solving school problems, but not actually to solve them. The latter responsibility belongs to the entire staff and should be placed there. It is felt that a committee of this type should not find it difficult to be loyal to a school cause rather than to a professional organization or the building from which a member may have been chosen.

Assuming now that the method of setting up this organization has been solved, a problem census should then be taken so

that time spent in meetings will be purposeful to both the administration and the faculty. The problems may involve school supplies, matters of salaries, promotion policies—in fact, any issue demanding general attention. The alert administrator will recognize not only the value of a coöperative means of reaching solutions to school problems but the opportunity of evaluating this democratic process in action.

A Bulletin Can Be an Interpretative Medium

Even though an administrator may have a direct channel to his teachers through this faculty council, it will be well to reach all the employees periodically by means of a bulletin. This enables him to interpret directly the things that are important to both administrators and the faculty. Such a bulletin should contain interpretative material issued directly by the administration office, be regular in its distribution, and recognize the importance of treating matters of greatest interest and importance to employees.

Resource People Should Be Tapped

The use of resource people in a local school system has become increasingly common in the last few years. In making plans for such a person it is well for an administrator to recognize that an outsider may be used most effectively with a school staff after a problem has been identified by the entire group, formulated to the place where some specific point needs interpretation, and a plan for the use of a resource person clearly outlined. This being done makes it possible for a state department of public instruction, a college, or any source organization to choose and send an individual who operates in the manner prescribed. It is beneficial to have the resource person, if possible, attend a series of meetings in which he can become acquainted with the philosophy of the school, for he will then be better able to direct his own thinking in ways which will be most helpful in the particular community. It has been found

beneficial in some communities to employ such a person for a semester and to set up a series of workshop meetings for parents, teachers, and administrators. A modification of this plan has involved holding a week-end workshop at a spot away from the home community at which the school and community groups can merge for the purpose of working on common educational problems with the aid of selected resource people.

Teacher Visitation Proves Useful

A new superintendent may wish to use teacher visitation to accelerate a program in the new community. Visitation provides a means of seeing good education in motion. Obviously the schools to be visited should represent the educational philosophy which is being sought. An effective experience of this type occurred when an administrator accompanied three groups on three separate occasions to a designated school. These groups comprised principals, parents, and teachers. All these people had expressed a desire to work on an educational program which would be effective for children. One of the most effective ways of allaying people's fear that schools are moving forward at too rapid a pace is to see a good school in action and then discuss the merits and implications of the whole program in relation to the local one. It's like taking a strong tonic to be able to visit parents and administrators in other schools and find that by coöperative, persistent effort they have solved problems similar to one's own.

Another type of visitation and one which should be practiced more is visitation in one's own system. The greatest barrier to this type is the creation of an insecure feeling in the teachers who are not visited. This barrier can be partially removed by the development among faculty members of a recognition and feeling for what is good in education. When staff members become professionalized, the teachers who are doing an excellent job are pretty well recognized by their fellows. It is wise to recognize that every teacher is doing something well. Most admin-

istrators feel that it is better to recognize superior teachers scattered in buildings throughout the system than to designate an "exhibit school" in which all the teachers are supposed to be superior.

THE COMMUNITY CAN BE ENCOURAGED TO HELP

Schools in a given community can seldom operate above the level at which its people think. This fact poses certain problems to the administrator that relate to the increasing functions of public education and the accumulating emphasis on democratic practices. Too frequently when an emergency issue is put to the community, it is poorly prepared to act because the educators have failed to provide a means for the people to participate in the processes of planning and evaluating. Probably the most overwhelming job facing a new superintendent is that of systematically handling his community relations. In making an attack on the problem he should recognize that there are many existing avenues through which he may work.

Forums and Questionnaires Help Feel the Community Pulse

The questionnaire and the opinionnaire have a place in the process of finding out how people feel on certain matters. This technique must not be overdone, for people today are besieged with polls of one kind or another. But if the questionnaire is brief, has a popular appeal, and is concerned with problems near the hearts of the participants, it is likely to be a successful means of testing the reactions of any group. An administrator should hope for two types of results from a questionnaire. It should be valuable in indicating the trend of thought of a given group and, if constructed properly, it should plant seeds for sound educational thinking in the minds of those who fill it out.

Consulting with people rather than telling people has been recommended as a way of working with teachers and with members of the board of education. The same principles apply in working with lay people. It is expedient for the school ad-

ministrator to discover educational thoughts in the minds of school patrons, what the people believe is the foundation upon which an educational program must be constructed. Failure to find the facts in a community situation is a common mistake of beginning superintendents. If there is a principle of operation that applies to superintendents in new positions, it can be appropriately stated in these words: Make the educational program fit the community rather than the community fit the educational program.

Taking the pulse of the community might be accomplished in some such manner as this. The administrator and selected members of the school staff could meet with groups already organized in the community. In an informal discussion, leaders of these organizations might be given an opportunity to express their ideas on the total school program. Reference is made here to such organizations as parent-teacher associations, women's associations, patriotic associations, labor groups, the chamber of commerce, service groups, churches, and others of a similar type. The technique to be used is a process of drawing out, rather than pouring in. People should be encouraged to express their point of view before the administrator states his opinion too definitely. When he makes his position known, many members of such organizations will cease to offer comments, fearing that what they say will be in disagreement and create friction between them and the new superintendent. A free flow of conversation is what the administrator should strive to achieve. Other groups must not be ignored, namely, the pressure groups. An identification of some of these follows.

1. There is the group which has been organized, or become bound together, because one or more members of the school staff are not performing their functions according to the wishes of the members of the group.
2. There may be another group which feels that the children of lower economic status are getting the attention of the schools rather than the children of a higher economic status.

3. There is often a group which believes that its members have been the founders and the guardians of the school system and that now the privileges and honors so enjoyed are being encroached upon by other people who have moved into the community and have taken over these functions.

The important approach with such groups is to seek them out and to discuss, across the table if possible, the nature of their complaint or dissatisfaction. Many of their ideas may be wholly dispelled at the first meeting; others may be handled by proposing study of the situation.

COMMUNITY EDUCATION SHOULD BE EXPANDED UPWARD

The expanding concepts of adult education offer a privilege and a responsibility to see that the school program provides an opportunity for continuing education for all ages beyond the formal schoolroom. While this type of program should of necessity include academic work, recreational enterprises, and avocational offerings, it should also provide a means for the people of a given community to participate in the processes of working, planning, and evaluating together.

The phenomenon of group organization and development which has characterized most American communities provides another avenue of approach to good community relations. In one community of approximately 20,000 people, it is estimated that no less than 100 groups, representing a broad pattern of interests, operate within the community's informal social and educational structure. Some are cloistered and exclusive, "group centered," yet have many objectives in common with other groups. Frequently these objectives may be attacked independently of each other. Some groups have national ties which, on occasion, may provide barriers to local community participation because of national policy. Many of these groups in the course of a year find occasion to approach the schools for assistance in their own programs. In one community in a given year 60 groups made 100 requests. Typical examples included collect-

ing donations ranging from money to paper, pencils, art supplies, clothing; selling seals, poppies, garden seed, milk, waste paper; taking pictures; making posters; sponsoring spelling, oratorical, and essay contests; giving talks and telling stories to children; arranging special assembly programs; making announcements and sending notices to parents; interviewing youngsters. Aside from the all-important elements of school time and the exercise of judgment in determining which activities supplement or aid the school program is the problem of maintaining interpretative relationships which assure group cooperation and understanding. A letter summarizing the ways and means of coöperation was written to a number of these groups and delivered personally in order to eliminate possible misunderstanding. Without exception, the individuals contacted were astounded at the extensiveness of the requests and gained an appreciation of the impact of these various activities upon the school program. It was evident that in most instances they had not been thinking beyond the narrow confines of their own group. This experience stimulated an awareness of the importance of working together. The suggestion was made that in the future it would be helpful if a representative of the school staff could be present when plans were being formulated which involved the public-school program. Opportunity was provided through this contact to assure key people of the schools' willingness to work with them and to extend possible services in relation to certain phases of their programs if assistance seemed to be needed.

Obviously, changes in leadership of these groups necessitate continuing contact and reinterpretation if the relationship is to be sustained. While the administrator may visualize the need for better coördination of effort among these groups in their service to the community, he does not necessarily assume the role of integrator. He seeks to capitalize on realistic opportunities for providing service to groups and he participates in the solution of common problems in a manner that raises the level

of group thinking and acting so that they, as groups, *want* to integrate their efforts. Through this aspect of adult education community problems may be discussed and tackled with zest, providing adequate rapport has been established.

The parent-teacher association has probably been the most outstanding organization in American schools in linking the home with the school. It would seem wise for the administrator to use the strength and possibilities of this organization as an avenue through which to reach people in the community, as a means of getting their ideas and as a possibility of unifying community thinking. In a community where school areas differ in economic status and in the type of people who live in them, there is a great possibility of removing artificial barriers and uniting the efforts of the school district through a P.T.A. council. This council can unify the thinking of parents representing the entire school system. Parents are exceedingly interested in their children. It is the parents who pay the bills for running schools and as taxpayers have not only the right but the responsibility of examining what is happening in these schools and of assisting in determining their educational policies. In other words, the people who are affected by the decisions of the administration should help direct the thought that goes into those decisions.

The greatest barrier in an organization of this type is the one which appears when people become so involved with the machinery of the organization itself that it detracts from the purpose at hand. In spite of this obstacle, the P.T.A. organization is the natural place for an administrator frankly to share the problems, policies, and practices that affect the entire system. He should not overlook the value in discussing with these people the problems they face in their own communities, provided they have common implications. An administrator should be concerned with the P.T.A. council not as a group to whom he can sell ideas but as a group to whom he can interpret and with

whom he can think out the perplexing situations that are common to all of them. In using this council he should not overlook the value of a contact with children; he should see that they are included at the proper time in the thinking and planning.

The Community Is Interested in the School Bulletin

Since it is impossible and impractical for the school administrator to know and deal directly with his public, he must make use of other devices. The interpretative bulletin has been effective in many communities. It should include aspects of the school program which have natural popularity but which illustrate good educational procedures for people of all ages. A few administrators have used the pattern of the Kiplinger Letter in which they attract the reader's attention by underscoring and using topic sentences. Others have depended on illustrative artistry to carry the message in a comic-book style. The most successful bulletins have been found to be those which are illustrative, brief, distributed at regular intervals, and written in language which the individual enjoys reading. The matter of distributing the bulletin should receive study, since there are numerous ways of reaching the people. Occasionally an administrator has secured the coöperation of local city officials to permit inclusion of a printed message in the envelopes when the tax statements are mailed out. Whether such messages are mailed, sent home with school children, or distributed through the community in handbill fashion will be determined by the effectiveness of the plan.

Direct and Personal Contact Is Always Best

Obviously the amount of direct contact a new administrator will have with his community varies inversely with its size. However, he should never overlook the possibility of working with groups and he should give them willing assistance when-

ever possible. An illustration of the effectiveness of this approach is cited here. In one community fifty industrialists and businessmen asked the privilege of sitting down with the school administrators and the board of education in an evening meeting. This meeting was not to be open to the public; it was held for the purpose of getting a clear understanding of the relation between the business problems of the community and those of the board of education. A most cordial atmosphere prevailed; ideas were shared with distinct frankness; and the barriers which naturally exist between those who do not know each other's problems seemed to vanish. There is something distinctly valuable in being able to say freely what you think and being able to say it to people who have important positions in your community. It is imperative that the school administrator attend community functions which are sponsored by school and other community organizations. Although he should not spend unnecessary energy on these social affairs, there are times when his good judgment should make him attend a function rather than send a substitute.

THE TEACHER IS AN IMPORTANT LIAISON PERSON

In many community activities the classroom teacher is left out. One of the recent devices for getting contact between the teacher and the lay citizen is the business-industry-education day. To illustrate this specifically, the preplanning period in one community included finding out from the teachers and other staff members what things in the operation of business and industry puzzled them. There then occurred a series of planning sessions with business and industry in which all the details of planning were cleared up. On the chosen day the entire school staff moved by groups into the assigned places of business for the entire day, and followed a time schedule which included discussion as the most important item. That evening, these same business and industry people played host to all the school staff at a banquet. A typical schedule follows:

UNISTRUT CORPORATION

MANUFACTURERS OF UNISTRUT METAL FRAME CONSTRUCTION
AND DECELECO BUS AND SWITCH CELL STRUCTURES

Telephone—Wayne 0202-0203
Office and Factory—4118 Monroe, Box 350
Wayne, Michigan

April 27, 1949

BUSINESS INDUSTRY EDUCATION—MAY 10, 1949
SPONSORED BY WAYNE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE AND
WAYNE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

- | | |
|------------|--|
| 8:30 A.M. | Meet at High School |
| 9:15 A.M. | Leave for plant |
| 9:45 A.M. | Welcome and history of Unistrut and general
outline of activities |
| 10:15 A.M. | Recess |
| 10:30 A.M. | Outline of policy |
| 11:00 A.M. | Types of product and services |
| 11:30 A.M. | Tour of plant |
| 12:30 P.M. | Lunch |
| 1:30 P.M. | Raw materials and how and where obtained |
| 2:00 P.M. | Development and engineering problems |
| 2:30 P.M. | Sales |
| 3:00 P.M. | Recess |
| 3:15 P.M. | Accounting |
| 3:45 P.M. | Personnel, labor, and types of jobs |
| 4:15 P.M. | General discussion |
| 4:30 P.M. | Return to High School |
| 7:00 P.M. | Dinner |

Participating: C. W. Attwood, Pres. & Gen. Mgr.
Edwin Walters, Prod. Mgr.
John Campbell, Purch. Agent
Ellwood Irish, Chief Engr.
Wilbur Blair, Office Mgr.

Later that week all the school people who had visited the same business or plant were assembled in a group to answer these questions:

1. Of what value was this day to you?
2. What were your criticisms of the mechanics of the day?
3. What implications did you find which will help us improve our schools?

4. How can we give business and industry as effective a day in our schools next fall?

TAKE TIME TO EVALUATE BEFORE MOVING AHEAD

Any superintendent will recognize the necessity of careful evaluation of his program. In other words, he must answer for himself the question, "How are things going?" There are many ways of approaching this evaluation, but one thing should be kept in mind—that we evaluate in terms of the purposes which have been set up coöperatively for our schools.

In searching for people's reactions we naturally turn to those who may be in a position to react to the effectiveness of the school program—in other words, the children, the parents, and other citizens. The choice of the machinery for evaluation is somewhat dependent on the thoroughness with which the administrator wants to do the job. A questionnaire which attempts to get both parent and student reaction may prove valuable, because it affords an opportunity to test the difference of opinion of those who are attending school and those at home who are looking on.

The teacher should share in the evaluation program by having the opportunity of making known the good things she is doing and the improvements she would like to make in her own teaching. By using two questions it is possible for an administrator to get a franker appraisal from a teacher and to avoid giving her the usual feeling that what she is doing is to be compared with what the administrator feels she should be doing. Such an approach is not burdensome to a teacher as far as time is concerned and it should help to maintain her security and should encourage reflective thinking.

In reaching further out into the community, fifty parents in one community were invited to an evening meeting to discuss the effectiveness of the local schools in turning out dependable young citizens. The selection was made through the local P.T.A.'s on the basis of people's interest in such an approach to

local education. The discussion during the meeting led to the appointment of a small committee to assist the superintendent in preparing a questionnaire so that the schools might have the benefit of the thinking of all the parents. The answers to the questionnaire were tabulated and used as evidence of parent feeling and teacher guidance. Those who signed their names (75 percent did so) received written invitations to attend a meeting to discuss the integration of community ideas into an effective program. At this meeting, the people chose thirty parents who they felt were the educational lay leaders of the schools. These thirty were to serve as a parents' committee for the superintendent. The potential power which exists in a group of parents such as this is inestimable, and fortunate is the superintendent who has the opportunity of working coöperatively with a fine corps of parents.

In summary, when a superintendent accepts a position in a new community, he must make a major decision between two ways of working. He must decide whether, in his work, he will attempt to rely solely on his own judgment, or whether he will accept the community and staff at face value and work with them to develop, coöperatively, a better school system. The latter road is much more difficult and probably will take more time, but it lays a foundation in the community that will have some permanency.

QUESTIONS

1. It is a well-known fact that people cannot stand prolonged tension. What does this imply for the development of democratic administration? Does mild excitement add spirit to the development of the community project? How can the school administrator influence the emotional tone of people?
2. What plans should be followed for inducting new board members into their positions? How can resource people be used to inform board members of desirable educational practices? Are the statewide meetings of school-board members desirable?
3. How should the new superintendent initiate programs for the faculty?

4. Why have teachers' meetings usually been a failure in the past? What are some fundamental principles for the development of good staff meetings?
5. What should be the purpose of an interpretative bulletin? Should propaganda be used in the school bulletin? What will people accept and reject in such a bulletin?
6. How can resource people be used to work with the faculty? How can the staff use a resource person most profitably? What common mistakes are made in using resource people?

PROBLEM

List the areas of service where community programs of education would be immediately acceptable to the people. List the types of service that might cause friction if they were initiated. Would administrative techniques and procedures be different in these two situations?

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VII

Operation of Groups in the Community Situation

The public school today has come to be a symbol of the American way of life. The right to an education, at least through the twelfth grade, is generally considered one of the basic and most precious of our birthrights. The concept of universal free education for young people is so important to the American people that they have charged the respective legislative bodies of the forty-eight states with sovereignty over their public schools.

The faith of the American people in universal education was reflected early in the development of the nation. In 1642 the government of the Massachusetts Colony provided civil authority for ascertaining if parents and masters were giving proper attention to educating the children "in learning and labor and other employments profitable to the Commonwealth," and if the children were being taught "to read and understand the principles of religion and the capital laws of the country." Thus a precedent was set for universal education in citizenship, in reading, in "labor," and in the "principles of religion."

Responsibility for education was left to the homes. However, five years later, in 1647, the government of Massachusetts

passed a law ordering its subdivisions "having 50 householders" to establish and maintain schools; a penalty was assigned if they failed to do so. The wages of the teacher were to be provided "in such manner as the town might determine," thus opening the way to taxation for the support of schools at each local level.

The obligation to furnish education and to send children to school has rested primarily and legally upon the parent. It has been generally recognized that the state suffers if the children, boys and girls alike, are not educated. It is significant that the early legislation recognized the historic responsibility of laymen for providing education for their children. Here is seen also a rising concern for what education can do for the general welfare and security of the people.

People Are Close to the School When There Is Local Autonomy

It is of vital importance that the principles of home rule or local autonomy in school matters prevailed when the constitutions of the several states were framed and adopted. Although education was accepted as a legal function of the state, the control of schools, with few exceptions, has been delegated by the legislatures to laymen elected by the people to membership on local boards of education and responsible directly to the people within the limits of the state statutes. It is this arrangement for placing responsibility for schools upon laymen in localities which has made the public-school system the genius of American democracy. Although teaching and the management of local schools have been transferred to professional people, the laymen at local levels—parents and taxpayers—determine the nature and destiny of education. It follows, then, that good schools come only through the efforts of local citizens.

The Schools Must Keep Abreast of Cultural Changes

The closer the schools are to the people, the more necessary it is for the schools to keep abreast of cultural changes. One would expect the American school to be alert to adjust itself to

the needs of those whom it serves, and to reflect quickly the changes occurring everywhere around it. But too frequently this is not the case. Witness that even though the automobile came into being with the twentieth century, the schools are only now getting around to establishing driver-training classes to meet the needs created by fast and convenient, but hazardous and costly, transportation. It has been shown that fifty years is the normal time for a school innovation to become generally diffused among the schools throughout a state. If the welfare of individuals and our national health depend upon the ability of people to keep abreast of new social, economic, civic, scientific, cultural, and spiritual developments it is exceedingly dangerous for this diffusion lag to continue in our schools. Capacity to make changes is basic to school improvement, and how to put that capacity to work for better schools is one of the major challenges to educators and laymen alike.

*The Adaptability of Schools Is Related to Lay Understanding
of What Schools Can Do*

In their studies in Pennsylvania, Mort and Cornell (17) found that lag in adaptation in schools shows a high correlation with community understanding; that when the poll was taken in communities where schools were rated as good, lay understanding about schools tended to be high. Parent participation in school activities was usually found to be lower in a community without adaptations than in one with them.

This seems to indicate that, even though a community is wealthy enough to support its schools at a high expenditure level and though it is large enough to include people representative of most all economic and cultural groups, a prerequisite to capacity for improving its schools is an understanding by laymen of what good schools can and should do—not merely what they *are* doing. From an understanding of the power of education in helping the individual to improve his life and his living there usually comes a desire for good schools and a willingness

to support them. With able and courageous leadership adaptability is increased and the diffusion lag for new practices is reduced.

EARLY PUBLIC RELATIONS PROGRAMS WERE INADEQUATE

In the past many educators have been inclined to the philosophy of "keeping the people up on the schools so they will not be down on them." The tendency too frequently has been for the school to encourage parents and laymen to take a laissez-faire attitude toward what it aims to do and is doing. An attempt has been made to "sell" the schools to the public by pagentry and fanfare or by sales talks through the press and other agencies. Under such a program of "public relations" every school is branded as the "best" school on the basis of fragments of its total program. This kind of "public relations" presumes an incapacity of the layman to understand what good schools can and should do by using their total potentiality. It leaves little room for thoughts of change, even for improvement. Any policy of community relations based upon this premise alone violates the principles of citizen responsibility and home rule for schools set forth in preceding paragraphs. It seriously underrates the layman's ability to understand the power of schools as institutions for improving the general welfare.

A New Emphasis in School-Community Relations Is Appearing

In every community and state, laymen are coming into new consciousness of the potentialities of the schools for improving the social structure. They are beginning to see that the community relations programs of the schools in the past have been unavailing and misdirected. They see that the job of school leadership is not one of selling the schools to the people but essentially one of buying the kind of school which the laymen themselves decide they want for their children. Laymen are saying, "We already own the schools. The children are ours. Help us to learn what good schools can do for our children and for society,

and what they will cost in terms of our collective ability to support them. We shall then decide upon the changes we want and are willing to pay for. We shall thereafter hold the school board and the administration responsible for securing that kind of education for our community." This interpretation by laymen of the place of the school is essentially democratic. It is basically the soul of local autonomy, or home rule, in school administration.

Laymen are becoming convinced that they own an institution, their school, which has power to improve life and living. Yet they are not sure that it is functioning to capacity or turning out the best product of which it is capable. They seem ready and eager to increase the capacity for production and to improve the product. They are registering a demand for enlightenment as to how the job can be done.

Since schools have arisen from the felt needs of laymen, since the legal structure of the state places responsibility for providing schools on laymen, and since school improvement depends upon the response of laymen to felt needs, one of the first and major activities of the school administration should be to increase lay understanding about what the entire program of good schools can and should do. What the schools do depends in the first place upon what the laymen in the local community understand that schools *can* do, and in the second place upon the participation of laymen in arriving at a decision on what their schools *should* do.

A COMMUNITY PROCEEDS TOWARD SCHOOL IMPROVEMENT

One of the questions most frequently heard today in discussions about schools is, "How can school-community relationships be implemented to improve education?" The problem lies clearly in the realm of school administration. Therefore the obvious place to begin in answering this question is with the educational leadership.

This was the challenge and the opportunity put to the author

in 1946 when the people of the city of Midland, Michigan, asked the question.

A twofold approach was adopted. First it was assumed that the people were vitally interested in knowing more about what good schools can do. This called for a wealth of study materials. A library of books, pamphlets, magazines, and other materials in the field of education was set up in the conference room of the administration quarters under the direction of one of the school librarians. These resources were made available to the public and to staff members alike.

The second phase of the approach was based upon the assumption that to know what can be done usually inspires a desire for doing. This assumption calls for wide participation by the people in studying education and building an educational program which they determine is good for their young people and which they wish to provide.

To illustrate how the laymen and professional educators of one community endeavored to fulfill their civic duties in keeping the schools responsive to needs, three projects will be described. Results indicate that laymen believe in the power and importance of public education, that they can understand school problems and purposes, that they are willing to sacrifice much in time, energy, and means to get good schools, and that they want more for their schools than educators dare to ask.

The Nature of the Midland Community

Midland is a rapidly growing city with a population of about 16,000. The school district is a little larger in area than the city. For Grades 9 through 12 the school district provides school facilities for an additional population of about 10,000 in the surrounding area. A large chemical manufacturing plant provides employment for over 7000 people and is the source of over 70 percent of the taxable wealth in the school district. Since less than one-half of the employees live in the school district there is a tremendous surge of home building and im-

migration. The community is about twenty miles away from any larger city. It is relatively "self-contained" from business, social, and cultural points of view and it is not influenced significantly by metropolitan conditions. The school system did not keep pace with the impetus for community growth during the war years. The birth rate is unusually high, having averaged 26 to 33 births per thousand population for several years. The nature of the community's industry promises a continuing stable peacetime development.

A SCHOOL STUDY AND PLANNING CONFERENCE WAS ESTABLISHED

As the first step in putting the schools in gear with the community's needs an organization was devised to register local opinion about schools. The organization was called the Midland School Study and Planning Conference. The council of Parent-Teacher Associations for the nine schools of the city joined the Board of Education in authorizing the calling of the conference. With the help of the Chamber of Commerce, all groups and organizations in the community were catalogued and the names and addresses of the current officers were secured. Written invitations were issued to the chief officers of all organizations on record to attend or be represented at the conference. There were originally 108 names on the list; this had increased to 138 on the list for 1950.

Since adjustment to new needs is the essence of school improvement and progress, the aims of school leadership were (1) to draw upon the resources of groups usually favorable to improvements, (2) to attempt to integrate the ideas of the unpredictable and usually unfavorable groups into a united program after study, (3) to convert the influence of all the favorable groups into dynamic action, and (4) to continue efforts to swing the unconvinced over to an attitude of acceptance (6). Through the press, whose editorial staff joined heartily in the conference plan from its earliest mention, all individuals who were interested were invited to attend. The teachers

and other members of the school personnel were invited through the official school bulletin.

The plans for the conference were arranged by a representative committee appointed by the Parent-Teacher Association Council but not necessarily from its membership. Since the Board of Education had a vital and official part in the final proceedings, the president or his appointee was made an ex-officio member of the committee, as was also the superintendent of schools. However, neither the board representative nor the superintendent held voting membership on the committee.

The first of these School Study and Planning Conferences was held in October, 1946. Others followed each year and the event has now become associated with American Education Week. The pattern has been about the same each year.

The conferences started at 7:30 P.M. with the Parent-Teacher Association Council president serving as chairman. His functions were to call the meeting to order and to welcome the people and with appropriate comments make them feel at home. He emphasized the democratic and representative character of the meeting and solicited unanimous participation in the proposals and discussions of the evening. He encouraged all group representatives to report on the conference to their respective organizations. Not more than five minutes was used for this purpose. The chairman then introduced the president of the Board of Education.

The president discussed the practices and policies of the board which encourage action "toward even better schools." (The quoted phrase was used as the title of his ten-minute talk.) He made it clear that the board's aim was to provide the best possible school program for the children and that in so doing the board was trying to fulfill its responsibility under the laws of the state to be the instrument of the people in educational matters. He pointed out that the School Study and Planning Conference was designed as a means of conveying the wishes of the people to the Board of Education and of publicly

registering their recommendations for better schools. He invited open and free expression so that board members would be kept acquainted with the needs that laymen believed the schools should meet. Ten minutes was sufficient for this part of the program.

In the first two conferences the superintendent of schools was asked to outline the procedure for the evening. In later conferences this function was performed by the chairman for the evening. The arrangements committee believes, however, that it is important for the superintendent of schools to describe briefly to the group his feeling that the conference is a valuable means for obtaining lay expression, for cataloguing the felt needs of the people for school improvement, and for providing a basis upon which to build a pattern of action in meeting those needs. Those at the meeting, having been advised in their invitation to be prepared, were then asked to express in a few words their feeling about school needs. In a brief sentence a secretary drawn from the group wrote each suggestion on a blackboard.¹ No discussion was permitted at this time, just a statement about school needs.

¹ The plan for the future is to enclose a 4 x 6 card with the invitation so each person may have his statement prepared in advance and leave it with the committee at the conference. This is intended to keep all suggestions within reasonable time limits. The card system will also make the recording job simpler. A sample card follows:

SUGGESTION CARD

Third School Study and Planning Conference
Midland Public Schools

Tuesday, January 24, 1950, 7:30 P.M., Junior High School

1. On the reverse side of this card
Please write a statement of the school need which you feel should be met to improve the Midland schools.
2. Bring this card to the conference.
3. Sign your name *only if you wish*.
4. You will have opportunity at the conference to present your suggestions and to file this card for further reference. This is a time-saving plan.

When all the suggestions had been presented, related items were grouped into study areas. The conference was then subdivided into small discussion groups according to interests. Six to ten discussion groups were used for 100 to 150 people.

Five minutes of assembly singing pepped up the meeting while the suggestions were being organized into related areas for discussion groups. The conference chairman then called the meeting to order, announced the study areas, and read the suggested needs assigned to each area. A study-area chairman was named by the conference chairman to preside at the ensuing discussion period. Each group also was instructed to select a recorder whose duties were to keep a record of the proceedings, to make a short oral report at the assembly after the discussion period, and to make a written report to the committee by a specified time after the conference. Their reports were mimeographed and mailed to all organizations on the mailing list, to everyone who registered for the conference, to all members of the board of education, to the superintendent of schools, and to the press. Thus a cumulative record of expressed needs of the schools has been devised. The file also serves as a fine reference record in appraising progress as the needs are satisfied.

The study groups were assigned to classrooms near the assembly room for the discussion period. Each group chairman attempted to hold the discussions to the following objectives:

1. Defining each problem.
2. Seeking possible solutions.
3. Selecting what is apparently the best solution.
4. Suggesting how best to proceed toward the solution.
5. Listing added equipment, personnel, or reorganization needed to solve the problem.

The final assembly was called at about 9:30 P.M. The reports of the discussion groups were short and zestful. Upon adjournment refreshments were served.

The School Study and Planning Conference Recommended Procedures

Had the School Study and Planning Conference stopped after it adjourned, its value would have been subject to serious question. The purposes of the conference were (1) to provide a mixing chamber for public opinion about schools, (2) to identify felt needs, (3) to define the needs, and (4) to give impetus for concerted community action to provide "even better schools." Information about the schools was brought back to each community organization by its representative and by the mimeographed reports of the discussion group recorders. The press brought much of this information to the homes through its news and editorial pages. So well was this done that the *Midland Daily News* was given a high award in a nationwide rating of newspapers on community services and the editor was named by the local Junior Association of Commerce as the "young man of the year." The Parent-Teacher Associations devoted time at their meetings to reports of the conference and other organizations gave special attention to them. Teachers were inspired by the interest of so many laymen and by the fact that the school personnel and townspeople could join hands in common enterprise.

The key to any move toward better schools is held by the board of education. Under the Michigan laws granting local autonomy in school matters, each board member as well as the official body is looked upon as a representative of the people. Sincere members—and very few are not sincere—yearn for a means to gauge public desire for school improvement. They also feel a sense of responsibility and stewardship for producing good schools. In the School Study and Planning Conference they have an instrument for sounding public opinion. They are part of the project and get the thrill of "carrying the ball." They have a catalogue of information on school needs, and they have a ready means for checking progress.

It is clear that this device opens many channels of communication.² People talked freely about school affairs. News-

² The following indicates the range of a discussion group report:

Study Group on

I. CURRICULUM IMPROVEMENT

Chairman, Myron Johnson

Recorder, Louis Govatos

1. Learning for family living

A carefully worked-out sequence of instruction should point to "family education" in the various levels with a possible course in the last year or two of high school preparing for family life. One aim should be to prevent juvenile delinquency and general behavior problems, not essentially a sex hygiene program. Although considerable work is now being done it should be reviewed, reorganized, perhaps expanded, and surely made available to more students at secondary levels. There is need for a course in adult education for parents in need of better family relationships.

2. Improvement of English and other tool studies

Upon entering college, students too frequently find themselves not well-enough prepared in English. Suggestions were offered that "more diagramming of sentences would help" and that the "size of English classes should be held to a smaller number of students." It was pointed out that smaller classes tended to increase the number of classrooms and teachers required and also the per capita cost for instruction. A representative of the Dow Chemical Company stated that the plant had arranged for classes in remedial reading for its employees who needed it. It was also suggested that similar deficiencies were apparent in arithmetic usage. There should be "stiffer and more definite requirements in outside reading, book reviews, and memory material." Spelling needs improvement.

3. Ungraded classes for exceptional children

(This was the most discussed item of the conference. It appeared in the study groups on "curriculum" and also on "special services.")

It was contended that classes for atypical children in Midland were long overdue, that slow learners and problem learners retarded the progress of the others in the class. There should also be provision for "the gifted" child. There is sometimes a "stigma attached to separation of atypical students from regular students." It was suggested that smaller classes free the teacher for more attention to problem learners. Lack of room-space has made special classes impractical and it appears the growing enrollments will fill all new rooms within two years. The suggestion was made that the administration building for Wheelock Park (U.S. Housing Project) would be suitable for special classes when the housing project is abandoned by the Government. It was announced that the schools have entered a request to the Federal government for possession of the building for this purpose. It is convenient to Eastlawn School, being on the school site. A survey of need for special classes should be made to bring the findings of the Unmet Needs Committee in 1947-48 up to date.

Other captions in this report were:

4. Transition from elementary to high school.
5. Coördination of school offerings at various grade levels.
6. Education about religion.
7. Curriculum uniformity between county and city schools.
8. Library-school relationships.
9. Habits of study.
10. Electives.
11. Extent of school offering.
12. Grade-level groupings.
13. Marking system.
14. Textbooks.
15. The teacher and the curriculum.

paper coverage was thorough. The channels of spoken and written language were opened to convey information about school needs in two directions—from the schools to the community and from the community to the schools. During the discussion it was surprising how many comments were made about student performance and behavior, thus bringing into focus the observations made by laymen. Also it was gratifying to learn how many people observed student labors with better understanding following the conference. Certainly the conference opened to laymen the channels of participation by which to influence the community institution—the school—which should and can be closest to them. The time lag for introduction of innovations was materially reduced because the legal agency for making the desired changes, the Board of Education, was kept in line with community desires.

But the impact of the conference was most fully felt in subsequent meetings authorized by the Board of Education. These meetings were to implement programs of community action for “even better schools.” Here in brief are descriptions of these follow-up sessions.

A Code of Working Relationships Was Developed

In the School Study and Planning Conference of 1946 there were thirty suggested school needs. They seemed to cluster around such ideas as the purposes of education, teacher supply

and qualifications, personnel policies, teacher load, salaries, working relationships, school organization, and the like. The Board of Education, feeling the need for action on these matters, authorized the appointment of implementation committees under the general guidance of an overall committee to develop a code of working relationships. The initial committee served as a steering committee. It consisted of a few lay leaders in the School Study and Planning Conference, a representative of the Board of Education, a member of the Teachers' Club, and the superintendent of schools. In appointing the nucleus of members of this school code committee the Board of Education empowered them to name their own officers, to add committee members as they saw fit, and to form subcommittees as the need occurred. Subcommittees were set up to work on (1) objectives for the Midland schools, (2) organization and working relationships, (3) a statement of policies for employment and compensation of teachers and of nonteaching personnel, and (4) a review of the findings and the drafting of final recommendations for a code of working relationships for officials and employees of the school system.

A Statement of School Objectives Was an Outcome

The nucleus of the subcommittee on objectives was a group of teachers already at work on curriculum appraisal under appointment of the superintendent. This group included representatives from all the buildings and from the respective grade levels from kindergarten through high school. The Board of Education authorized this group to draw upon laymen and students for additional members, to reorganize itself, and to submit a statement of objectives for learning at all levels of the Midland school system. This was done in terms of desirable outcomes in student behavior which a good program should be expected to produce. The subcommittee used as a starting point the four objectives for education evolved by the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association,

namely, human relationships, self-realization, civic responsibility, and economic efficiency. The report of this group was the opening chapter of the finished publication.

A Statement on School Organization and Operation Was Written

The second chapter was the work of the subcommittee on organization and operation. This subcommittee had a nucleus of three employees, two board members, and two laymen, all appointed by the steering committee. This group elected one of the board members as its chairman. The work of this subcommittee entailed careful study of the laws relating to school districts, school government, and school personnel, including the powers and duties of the Board of Education and its officers, the superintendent, principals, supervisors, teachers, and other employees. It was necessary to comb the minutes of the Board of Education for established policies of the board. Current practices with respect to working relationships, rules, and regulations in other schools were likewise surveyed. The result was a carefully worded code setting forth the legal status of the school district; defining the powers, duties, and relationships of the school personnel; and stating the established policies and procedures of the Board of Education in matters involving school operation.

Committees Produced Statements of Policy for Employment and Compensation of Employees

The following procedures were suggested by the steering committee for the subcommittees on personnel policy. They were endorsed by the executive committee of the Midland Teachers' Club. The board then authorized their use as a plan of action for producing and recommending a statement of policy for employing and paying school personnel.

Step 1. It was agreed to defer consideration of exact amounts of base salaries and supplemental stipends until the reports of the committees for Steps 2 and 3 (below) were received.

Step 2. A subcommittee was appointed to draft a statement of employment policies for teachers. This committee was known as the "Step 2 Committee" or the "Employment Policies Committee." Its membership was as follows:

Three members appointed by the Teachers' Club.

Three members from the Board of Education.

Laymen selected by the above six members as needed for the work to be done.

Step 3. The Salary Committee of the Midland Teachers' Club was commissioned to prepare and submit data on *local* costs of living, trends in compensation for teachers, and other indexes for arriving at a fair salary for Midland teachers. This committee was free to act in its capacity as a group of teachers to supply other committees and consultants with pertinent data. It was primarily a resource and fact-finding committee.

Step 4. A committee was authorized to review the findings of the two foregoing committees and to draft a statement of policy for employment in keeping with the financial ability of the district. Membership consisted of two delegates from each of these two committees and from the Board of Education. Three additional members were selected from the community at large by the six committee delegates.

Step 5. The report of the Step 4 committee was submitted to the teachers and other employees for their reaction before it was given final consideration by the Board of Education.

Step 6. The Board of Education asked that final reports be submitted for its consideration by a specified date.

Policies Were Established for Committee Work

The following general policies were agreed upon by the respective committees and the Board of Education:

1. The Michigan Education Association was invited to appoint a consultant as ex-officio member of all committees without power of vote.

2. The presidents of the Midland Board of Education and the Midland Teachers' Club served as ex-officio members of all committees without power of vote.
3. The superintendent of schools served as consultant and ex-officio member of all committees without power of vote.
4. Members-at-large of all committees were chosen on the basis of their qualifications to serve and not on the basis of representation of selected community groups or organizations. It was felt that group expressions had been registered in the School Study and Planning Conference.
5. For purposes of evaluation the Board of Education reserved the right to refer the findings of the various committees to the State Department of Public Instruction, the University of Michigan, the National Education Association, or other recognized authorities in the field.
6. The status of all committees was defined as advisory and they existed by authority of appointment under the legal powers of the Board of Education. The progress reports and final reports on findings of all committees were held confidential and not considered official or subject to release until filed and acknowledged by the Board of Education.

After about six months of study, consultations, hearings, and discussions, there was produced a composite report which was adopted by the Board of Education as the *official code of working relationships for officials and employees of the school district*. All committees were then discharged by the Board of Education with expressions of commendation and gratitude. The complete report was mimeographed and bound in a loose-leaf cover under the title, *How Midland Schools Work*.³ In this form it can be kept up to date easily and quickly as revisions are authorized from time to time by the Board of Education. Each candidate for employment is given a copy of it at the

³ Copies may be obtained by writing to Midland Public Schools, Office of Superintendent, Midland, Michigan.

time he is offered a job and before he accepts it. All provisions of the code are part of the conditions of employment. The teaching contracts include a statement to this effect.

A COMMUNITY SELF-SURVEY WAS UNDERTAKEN

A second project grew out of the momentum and procedures utilized in the study of school policies. Overcrowding of school facilities was fast becoming a serious problem. The materials of the 1946 and 1947 School Study and Planning Conferences provided a background for the Board of Education's decision to undertake a community self-survey of school needs in the hope that a long-range pattern for educational growth would be evolved. A steering committee was appointed, the board president and the superintendent of schools serving as ex-officio consultants without vote. This committee recommended the following plan for the survey and the Board of Education gave it unanimous approval.

The plan called for the appointment of four study committees and a general committee to review the work of the four study committees and draft a composite report to the Board of Education. Collectively the entire personnel of the five groups comprised the "Committee on Unmet Needs." The board member who served as chairman of the steering committee was elected by the members to be general chairman of the Committee on Unmet Needs. He, the president of the Board of Education, and the superintendent of schools became ex-officio members and consultants of all committees but had no power to vote.

Initial membership on each of the five committees was made up of one member of the seven-member Board of Education which, with the steering committee, selected a nucleus of laymen members. The board members presided until the group elected its own officers. Each committee was free to expand its membership as it wished. The four study committees were called upon to present their findings in writing to the reviewing

committee for analysis, refinement, recommendations for a course of action, and the establishment of priorities to accomplish the recommendations. The reviewing committee in turn was charged with the responsibility for putting the final reports of these four committees in form for presentation to the Board of Education.

Board Members Had a Place on the Study Committees

It is recognized that there is a considerable body of written opinion opposing membership of school board members on working committees. It has been argued that such membership would be the source of undue influence and would tend to stifle freedom of expression and activity. The experience accumulated in these projects proves the opposite to be true. The board members, feeling both a sense of responsibility for results and pride in a new-found opportunity for service, gave valuable help in seeing to it that the committees were alert to their assignments. They were very valuable as liaison individuals between the board and the committees. Waste motion, confusion of direction, and mixed interests were held to a minimum by having board members on these committees. It was, of course, understood that they were present and were acting as individuals. A provision in the code of working relationships states, "A board member as an individual has no official authority outside of board meetings except those explicitly delegated to him by an official action of the board. It is illegal and highly improper for him to make promises or determine new policies outside of Board of Education meetings."

Each Study Committee Was Assigned an Area for Study

The areas covered by the four study committees included:

1. The Nature of the Midland School Community—its history, industrial life, cultural status, educational level, recreational interests, census data, birth rates and population trends,

home construction, school construction, school enrollments, and financial status.

2. The Physical Plant and School Sites—condition of buildings and fixed equipment, repair and maintenance needs, life expectancy of buildings, feasibility of additions, and adequacy and location of sites.

3. Educational Offering and Organization—the operating philosophy and objectives of the school system; principles of learning; scope, sequence, and content of the curriculum; organization of the schools with respect to the educational offering; relation of the educational offering to the needs of the learners and to life in the community.

4. Special and Extended Services—criteria for an extended service program; education of children with exceptional needs; services to staff personnel; services to student personnel such as health services, lunches, recreation, and sports; handling of supplies; facilities for maintenance; transportation; and administration quarters.

Advantages of the Community Self-Survey Were Recognized

The procedures described briefly above have done much to encourage wide participation on the part of laymen and school personnel working together to discover school needs, to invent means of satisfying these needs, to open the channels for increasing community understanding about what schools can do, and to make it possible to get the kind of schools which will meet the educational needs.

By drawing upon lay and professional talent for making surveys during the past several months, an unusually fine enumeration of educational and plant needs is now at hand. The data not only were collected and appraised by the original findings or study committees, but were reviewed and reevaluated by a fifth committee, half of whose members were not connected with the original study. Board members have been in close contact with the research, discussions, findings, and

recommendations of the several groups as they applied themselves voluntarily to their assigned tasks.

With the Board of Education sitting in final review of the work of the several committees and of the many lay people assisting in the studies, a third refinement of the findings was possible. Extraneous and unnecessary needs were eliminated and only those of first priority were recommended by the board to the public for final action.

It is very significant that the many people participating in the studies on unmet needs seemed to agree on certain ideas. First, they gave greater concern, emphasis, and priority to improving school services. Second, they recognized that school housing and equipment should be provided as soon as possible for immediate needs. Third, they foresaw that money should be spent now to provide flexibility for future needs if and when provision for them assumes first priority in the community.

Consultative Services Were Secured

In many school surveys nonresident professional survey experts have been called in to do the job for a fee. In the Midland self-survey no one was thus employed. It was felt that professional surveys often reflect a bias toward the particular school of thought of the survey expert employed. It was observed that the survey done by an expert and his staff usually was made to fit a preconceived pattern of educational thought. It followed that for such a survey to be valuable a selling job remained to be done in getting the community to accept the surveyor's philosophy. There was a feeling that very often the survey findings came to concentrate on and point toward a community "whipping boy." The feeling was also expressed that the professional survey, as such, rarely failed to increase lay understanding about what schools can do.

The procedures followed in the Midland self-survey plan, however, did not minimize the advantages of the specialist in the field of educational planning. It is felt that the manner in

which consultative services were used in the Midland self-survey did much to bring wisdom and assurance into the recommendations in the final report. The people themselves made the survey, their minds open to a search for the best possible education for their children. By participating in deciding the kind of education their children should have, the function of administration was changed from "selling" to "buying" education.

As the study program proceeded and as needs were felt, the several committees frequently called in to advise them people especially trained and with proved experience in the area under study. Civic and service clubs and the Parent-Teacher Associations shared the expenses of such services with the Board of Education. Usually the specialist spent a morning analyzing the problem with local committee members, visiting the schools, and making on-the-spot observations. The problem was further discussed and analyzed at a luncheon conference with the committee, school board, and staff representatives. Further observations were made in the afternoon, and at the end of the school day (about 4:00 P.M.) the consultant met in a sort of workshop session with interested people, including laymen and teachers. In the evening he would, upon occasion, address a public meeting on the area of school need under study. The services of specialists with differing points of view were secured and the committees were free to weigh the variances of opinion and make their own conclusions and recommendations.

Among the nonresident consultative services drawn upon during the study were those of Dr. E. T. McSwain of Northwestern University, sponsored by the P.T.A. and Teachers' Club; President John A. Hannah and staff members of Michigan State College, provided by the local chapter of the American Association of University Women; staff members of the University of Michigan; Dr. Eugene B. Elliott, Dr. Lee M. Thurston, G. Robert Koopman, Wilfred F. Clapp, and other staff members of the Michigan Department of Public Instruction; Dr. Leonard V. Koos of the University of Chicago, sponsored

by the Kiwanis Club; the Michigan Education Association; Dr. Paul R. Mort and Dr. Willard Elsbree of Teachers College, Columbia University; and the Metropolitan School Study Council of New York, a school research group with which the local school system is affiliated.

Resident Consultants Were Utilized

The city of Midland is itself rich in talent which was drawn upon as occasion demanded. Among its residents are an unusual number of former teachers and school people from many communities throughout the nation whose contributions to the study have been very valuable. The nature of local industry has attracted many able and well-trained professional people to the city and their services have been especially beneficial. The instructional, maintenance, and administrative personnel of the school system made major recommendations. Members of the City Planning Commission and city officials also made valuable contributions and the reports of the commission were part of the study materials of the several committees.

The points of view of students were valuable for the study. Through their home rooms, students submitted written suggestions on many items such as curricular offerings, building facilities, type of room organization preferred, extended services including post-high-school education, noon lunches, and playground areas. From time to time some of the young people were invited to the committee meetings and their opinions were registered with favorable effect. Those chosen were representatives of home rooms, student councils and other groups, and individual students who were known to have something to offer. Not only did these students make valuable suggestions, but their appearance at the committee meetings was very inspiring to the adults.

The Survey Findings Were Widely Reported

The report of the Unmet Needs Committee was presented formally to the Board of Education at a public meeting on

September 22, 1948, thus concluding the assignment. After ample opportunity to discuss the provisions of the report, the board officially accepted it as a pattern for future action on school improvement. The committees were thereupon officially dissolved, their functions having been fulfilled. The report was mimeographed and bound and distributed by the authority of the Board of Education under the title, *Growing Schools for a Growing Midland*.⁴

Momentum for Community Action Was a Result of the Survey

A new group of laymen came forward almost immediately after the filing of the survey report, with a proposal to submit to the people the "first step" recommendations of the committee. These called for school buildings, new sites, a bond issue of \$1,500,000, and an increased tax rate. Over two hundred people organized themselves into small working groups and engaged in this implementation effort. These groups first studied the report of the Unmet Needs Committee and satisfied themselves about its merits. They then informed the people through the press, in community discussion groups, and by brochures. All costs were borne by lay groups. The descriptive brochures were distributed personally from door to door in previously addressed envelopes. The proposals were submitted to the people just four weeks after the work of the Unmet Needs Committee was finished. *The vote was favorable by a ratio of over 5 to 1.* It was the feeling of local people that the widespread participation by laymen in formulating the program of action accounted for the favorable vote in such a short time.

SOME GENERALIZATIONS CAN BE MADE ABOUT THE
ROLE OF THE GENERAL ADMINISTRATOR

To bring about changes in the schools that will meet the changes taking place in society requires action as dynamic as life itself. Schools which are alert to meet the changing de-

⁴ Copies may be obtained (price \$1.00) by writing to Midland Public Schools, Office of Superintendent, Midland, Michigan.

mands of a changing social order must be dynamic institutions. Adjustment to needs is a dynamic process in itself. This dynamic nature of the role of education calls first for a type of school administrator who recognizes the importance of the power of education being clearly and extensively understood in the community. The approach to increasing lay understanding about schools must be predicated, not on selling the public a bill of goods which the public already owns, but upon enabling the people to see the power of education and good schools in improving the lives of individuals and, through them, the social order. Second, the school administrator must have the capacity to develop and to use successfully the procedures, devices, and techniques particularly suited to the symbiotic character of his community. Third, the dynamic nature of adaptability in schools calls for a continuity of leadership which does not rest on its oars. Leadership must continuously pave the way to better schools (1) by raising the level of community understanding of the power that education can exert for better life and better living, (2) by generating potentialities for community action in making adjustments to needs, (3) by directing the energies of the community into constructive actions, and (4) by keeping the channels for action properly open.

If a community is to have appropriate education, opportunities must be given for popular participation in discovering and defining school needs, in designing ways to meet the needs, and in putting innovations into operation. Should the channels of participation be cut or blocked, the dynamic forces in a community may spill over into irrational channels, with dire results.

The school administrator should function not only as a chief teacher but also as a chief citizen in the community and as an expert in social engineering. His function is to point the way to the improvement of schools in terms of changes necessary to meet demonstrated and felt needs. It is not enough merely to prove to the community that it has good schools. The end result

of such a policy is contentment with attainment, and this is the beginning of decline. The challenge to the administrator is to increase lay understanding of what good schools can and should do, for in the knowing thereof is generated the will to obtain good schools. The success of the schools in meeting educational needs depends upon his skill (1) in identifying the elements of the community which mold public opinion, (2) in using the proper tools for opening the community channels through which public understanding about schools is increased, and (3) in channeling the participation of laymen in fulfilling their desires for even better schools. Thus will the schools entrusted to the administrator's leadership become adaptable schools.

QUESTIONS

1. What are the arguments for having a lay advisory group entirely independent of the board of education? What point of view can be advanced for having lay advisory groups work jointly with the board of education? What are the strengths and weaknesses in both systems?
2. What groups of people are usually left out of educational program building? How can these people be induced to participate in co-operative action committees? Why do they often show a lack of interest in participation?
3. Should lay participation start with individual units in the school system? What are arguments for this approach to lay participation? What are the danger points in relying upon this system alone?
4. What is the role of the administrator in working with lay groups? Should he act solely in the capacity of a consultant? Should lay groups be encouraged to work alone without resource people?
5. How will a follow-up study show unmet needs? How much reliance can be placed on follow-up studies? How can follow-up studies be misleading?

PROBLEM

Make a list of institutions in your community that would coöperate in the development of educational programs. Would these institutions include most of the leaders in the community? How would you enlist the services of leaders not found in these organizations?

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VIII

Democratic In-Service Education in Operation

WHAT IS THE ROLE OF IN-SERVICE EDUCATION?

In-service education has come to be recognized by the modern school administrator as an integral part of educational planning. The bright spots in curriculum improvement over the country are, in most instances, to be found in the school systems that have incorporated comprehensive plans for in-service growth, based upon the fundamentals of coöperative planning in educational administration and policy development.

A school system modifies its old ways of doing things and improves its practices only as its personnel acquires new ways of carrying out its objectives. This applies especially to classroom teachers, the basic group, and also to principals and the general administrative staff. There can be no hope of improving the effectiveness of a program in any plan that is not based upon creating better learning situations for students and teachers, for good instruction is the most important value in any organizational plan.

Programs of in-service education must be centered around recognized needs of the teaching staff. These areas of recognized need are readily definable when coöperative group action

is accepted practice in a school system. Coöperative group action becomes a stilted and artificial process when representative or group planning is introduced for in-service growth and development but forgotten or ignored in other phases of educational planning carried on by school officials.

To be effective and to assure fundamental progress in educational improvement in the classrooms, democratically planned and administered in-service programs must be part of an overall democratically functioning school system. By a democratically functioning school system is meant a school situation of any size—one building or a thousand buildings—in which the chief administrative officials, in coöperation with the rest of the faculty acting directly or through faculty representatives, formulate educational policy and plan the major changes, improvements, and developments affecting the school system.

Democratically planned programs of in-service education will recognize the changing patterns of modern education and will contain within their framework the essential elements of flexibility to meet the evolving curriculum needs of the modern school. Such programs will bear the earmarks of group thinking and planning and will be more dynamic than administration-dominated arrangements for teacher growth. Yet underlying such forward-looking planning there must be democratic leadership to stimulate, lead, and inspire as well as to give confidence to those who are working at implementing the arrangements which have been set up. Also, there should be able personnel at the helm to serve as a buffer in dealing with the board of education and in meeting the general public reaction, and to preserve the essential feeling of security which must be a constant among the personnel if the work is to be characterized by forthrightness and objectivity.

The leadership in school administration must acquire new significance, increasing influence, and greatly expanded responsibility in the kind of school system which is demanded today if education is to play its vital role in helping society meet its

grave responsibilities. The superintendent and his associates must demonstrate a type of educational leadership which might be characterized as social statesmanship. The program and purpose of the whole scheme of public education are just as essential a part of the administrator's responsibility as management. It is in the broad field of ideas, in long-term policy planning, in developing social vision that the superintendent often encounters difficulty. In these areas, too, the layman is vitally concerned, because what the schools teach will in considerable measure influence the kind of society we shall have. The administrator with social vision will recognize the need for providing ways and means for counseling with teachers and laymen to the end that the wisest educational plans possible may be agreed upon. Such coöperation calls for great skill in working with people and in helping groups to arrive at decisions that will embody the collective best thought and recommendations for educational progress. The great problem of supervising and directing the administrative machinery by which a modern community establishes, maintains, and improves its public schools demands the wisest possible leadership. It is the purpose of this chapter to make constructive suggestions as to ways in which administrators may improve educational practice through democratically planned and administered programs of in-service education.

CURRICULUM REVISION AND IN-SERVICE EDUCATION CANNOT BE SEPARATED

The individual classroom is coming to be accepted more and more as the basic unit in curriculum development. It is the individual teacher, planning with children, who in the final analysis determines which experiences, needs, and activities will be employed in the learning process. Some schools are motivating teachers to be interested in curriculum development and are building in-service programs around such curriculum improvement. What could be more valuable for improving the

skills of the teacher on the job than to arrange for active sharing in studying, experimenting with, and making important decisions on programs of curriculum revision? Most school systems, conscious of their social obligations, will be concerned with a constant program of curriculum development. The administrator's task is to lead in helping to find ways by which teachers and others may plan and make arrangements for curriculum study and improvement.

A good school curriculum reflects the combined thinking of faculty, parents, and in some areas students, plus the most skillful consulting service available from specialists at the college level. Those who share in such a program have a unique opportunity to grow professionally and to understand better and appreciate the objectives established as guides to classroom teaching. It is in such group work that many a teacher catches the inspiration to put new life and meaning into the work directly involving children or youth. It is in such groups often that the administrator or supervisor is helped to realize the importance of learning and is stimulated to a new sense of obligation to lead in a broad frontal advance toward better schools for the young people of the community.

Out of curriculum revision work may flow new ideas, new challenges, and new insights which will promote other types of in-service educational activity. Better ways of using part of the tax dollar may be discovered. It is possible that a few thousand dollars spent in local workshops or curriculum laboratory services may be more valuable in bringing about improved methods of teaching than larger sums spent for supervision or extensive acquisition of additional college credits through frequent summer-school attendance.

TEACHERS SHOULD SHARE IN PLANNING IN-SERVICE IMPROVEMENT

A basic principle of democratic school administration is that those who are to be affected by educational progress should have a share in planning such programs. If this is good theory

for pupils, certainly it holds for those who teach pupils. In school administration, coöperation and educational planning are given lip service freely; however, when it comes to the honest and straightforward application of the principles of group planning in the coöperative development of school policy, philosophy, and educational practice, communities actually applying such principles are rather difficult to identify. There are some, nevertheless, and they have been studied with a view to finding out ways in which the teaching corps has been brought directly into the planning for in-service improvement. A few illustrations of successful teacher participation are given.

*A Committee on Committees Is Democratically Selected
from the Faculty*

This group, democratically selected from the faculty, serves as an advisory committee to the administration in selecting areas for special study during the school year, decides on the personnel of other committees, attempts to evaluate the work of other committees, and at times determines the scope of and need for proposed new committees. The membership of this central committee is determined by each building faculty, who sends one representative to it. The major value in having such a committee appears to be the satisfaction which all teachers derive from the knowledge that they have representatives who actually speak for them in matters relating to the system-wide committee and council organization and that they have an outlet for criticism and suggestion in relation to the committee work through the schools.

A Council on Instruction Is Essential

This group, sometimes called the curriculum council, is also elected by the teachers, and through unit representatives all elements have a voice in the general planning with reference to all phases of the educational program affecting instruction. This council should be the key group in educational improve-

ment in the typical school system. Through it the problems, proposals, and ideas of the entire corps are channeled to a central body for study and action.

General curriculum revision as well as improved methods grow out of these deliberations. The ideas are considered by the council and referred to the building faculty units for study and further action. The final recommendations of the council on instruction are the product of thoughtful group consideration by all the teachers in the system who may be affected by any given problem. In this process, real professional growth takes place which affects all the teaching corps. The fact that decisions made by the council are based upon extended deliberation and that the studies, discussion, and final recommendations of all concerned are at the level of the classroom teacher makes this type of in-service program of tremendous importance. At no point is the deliberative process controlled or dominated by anyone on the administration or supervisory staffs, yet the specialists in the school system as well as visiting consultants may be used to counsel and to serve as resource people in these group deliberations.

A Professional Problems Committee Can Promote Teacher Welfare

The faculty committee concerned with teacher welfare, when representative of the entire corps and selected by them, can have considerable influence on the planning for in-service improvement programs. One such group spearheaded a movement for better salaries and along with the salary schedule proposed a lengthening of the school year and the inclusion in the salary schedule of specific requirements for professional growth and improvement to accompany consistent annual increments. In addition this committee set up an appeals board through which any teacher had the right to make a complaint if, in her judgment, an injustice had been done. The establishment of such a board in coöperation with the administration proved to be a morale-building factor throughout the system. Such ar-

rangements increase the feeling of security among teachers and help to assure fair treatment for all by the administration. Only an honest and fair-minded administration can afford to accept and coöperate in such arrangements.

A Special Services Council Promotes Implementation

This group, also selected by the teachers, has the job of helping to decide what types of community programs, activities, drives, etc., the school shall participate in during the year. While such committees may not be directly concerned with planning for in-service improvement, the members are alert to the areas of coöperation and conflict between school and community, and through their contacts carry back to their fellow teachers in all the schools much information and inspiration which serve as a good foundation upon which constructive programs of professional progress may be built. In fact, various phases of the special services council's work involving close collaboration with the administration and lay groups in the community have a direct effect upon in-service educational activities. New understanding of the importance of interpreting the schools to the community and general appreciation of the necessity of keeping the community informed about and sympathetic to the total school program are valuable by-products of in-service group activities.

The Voluntary Professional Organization Can Promote Program Improvement

The executive board of the teachers' association representing the whole faculty is another group which furthers professional growth on the job when working in harmony with the school administration and the supervisory force. The professional problems committee referred to above was a means of collaboration between the council and the administration in one school system. Although teachers are concerned with their own economic welfare and spend much of their time in professional

associations beating the brush for better working conditions, the same may be said for all other associations and unions as well. When given fair consideration by the administration, most teacher organizations will go a long way with any reasonable program of professional improvement.

Preschool Conferences Involve All Staff Members

A committee may be used to secure the help of all the teachers in making the days before school opens full of meaning to everyone. More schools are arranging definite days of preplanning for the year's work, either by lengthening the school year or by finding time within the traditional calendar year. Some schools now plan for a full week of such activity and also for a period of summarizing, evaluating, and appraising the year's activities in a postschool conference period. These small-group and large-group conference sessions provide a large amount of additional growth experience when they are planned by the teachers themselves and when staff members and classroom teachers plan in harmony. The activities are more likely to represent the felt needs of the classroom teacher when the arrangements have been thus made.

THE BOARD OF EDUCATION MUST COÖPERATE IN IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

The superintendent of schools must understand and appreciate the value of in-service education, because it is primarily his responsibility to persuade the board of education to understand and coöperate with such programs to the extent that they will be willing to spend tax dollars in assuming a comprehensive program of teacher growth. Most board members are progressive people in their own fields of business and when the values to be gained by such budget appropriations are clearly understood and appreciated, the necessary convincing arguments become relatively simple.

When there are close working relationships between admin-

istration and personnel, it may be very helpful to invite teacher representatives to confer with the board of education about the merits of certain in-service programs which may be proposed. When the administration and teachers are agreed upon certain salary schedule features which incorporate specific requirements for periodic further study by faculty members, it is easier to obtain increments, extra pay for graduate credit, and better terms for leave of absence on part pay and for graduate study. When board members see that teachers are willing to assume greater obligations in order to do a better job, most school boards will go along on a reasonable expansion for in-service programs.

Boards of education are always "hard up" for money to meet school budgets. To add new items with new and high-sounding titles may prove difficult for most school boards. The administrator who has carefully analyzed his problem may find considerable help in the tactful use of research findings. One salary committee, in its endeavor to include sabbatical leave with pay in the salary schedule, pointed out to the board of education that there were a number of teachers who had not taken a single college course in the eighteen years they had been working in the school system. Other rather startling data were also presented. Agreements were reached which provided for periodic study and sabbatical leave with pay.

Innovations in in-service programs necessitating additional expenditures from the school budget may be introduced by dribblets, a small part at a time, the results being allowed to accrue as evidence of the value of such budget increases. Demonstrations by other school systems may also be used to show reluctant school boards the way.

Parent groups may be sold on the value of bringing in special consultants to help on certain phases of the educational program. The Parent-Teacher Association groups may be willing initially to finance certain visits by consultants. When fully apprised of the help possible from such consulting service,

these lay groups may assist in presenting these needs to the board. Parent interest in a project, when backed by the superintendent and by faculty recommendation, carries a great deal of weight with most school boards. On the other hand, when the administration pushes such programs without substantial interpretation to the patrons and the faculty, the board's acceptance of additional responsibilities and expenditures for in-service programs may prove a boomerang.

Some of the items which may be properly included in the school budget and considered as helping in the overall in-service educational program in most schools are the following:

1. Special provisions of the salary schedule.
2. Sabbatical leave allowances.
3. Expense allowances for educational travel.
4. Allowances for visiting schools.
5. Funds for substitute service to relieve teachers for conferences, visiting, special assignments, etc.
6. In-service institutes and allowance of time for attendance and funds for consulting service.
7. Bonuses for advanced professional study.
8. Subsidizing of services provided by teachers' colleges for departments of education in faculty advisory service.
9. Compensation for preschool and postschool conferences by the faculty.
10. Summer workshop costs, both those arranged locally and those in which teams of teachers work as a unit in university summer schools.
11. Expense allowances for attendance at state and national educational conferences.
12. Funds for publication of bulletins, study guides, outlines, and curriculum brochures used in the improvement of instruction.
13. Provision of time for special in-service activities.
14. Provision for comprehensive professional library serv-

ice, including curriculum laboratory, current periodicals, collections of past educational references, and assistance in gathering data from other sources on special problems.

Boards of education are entitled to a full understanding of the need for and the processes of in-service education. They should study the underlying philosophy of group planning and fully understand the assumption that educational growth and progress are best achieved when there is participation of all concerned with the process. Some superintendents have found it helpful for the board to adopt certain resolutions recognizing this point of view. One board approved of collaboration with teacher groups, parent organizations, and student councils by adopting the following resolution:

Recognizing the growing importance of public education in American democracy and being in complete agreement with the point of view that the schools should remain close to the people and that they should maintain constant contact with all elements in the community; and accepting the principle that all concerned with the work of public education—the pupils, parents, and teachers—should have a part in developing the educational policy in the schools; we, the members of the Board of Education of Battle Creek, hereby go on record as endorsing the instruments of democratic coöperation now functioning in our educational program, including the Parent-Teacher Association, Educational Advisory Council, the Teachers' Association, the Engineer-Custodians Association, the Secretaries Association, and the City-wide Student Council.

As a Board, we wish to encourage study, discussion, and active participation by all concerned through their several organizations in the promotion of the best possible program of education for our community. We believe that effective education for democratic living takes place only when adequate provision is made for actual practice in democratic action.

In recognizing the above-mentioned coöperating organizations in the educational program of the Battle Creek Public Schools, and by encouraging their active participation in educational policy-making, we wish to make it clear that in no way does the Board wish to escape its responsibility to the citizens of the community as the official governing body responsible to the people for a final decision on all matters of policy and educational programs.

Under the statutes of the State of Michigan, the Board assumes its

full responsibility in all matters relating to the program of public education in the City of Battle Creek, and invites fullest coöperation from all groups through suggestion, discussion, and recommendation, reserving to itself the right and the obligation to make final decisions based upon available evidence on all matters affecting the educational program carried on in the public schools of Battle Creek.¹

COÖPERATION WITH TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IS DESIRABLE

There appears to be a growing recognition, on the part of school officials and those who direct teacher education institutions, of the need for closer collaboration, both in the basic training of prospective teachers who will be employed in the schools, and in the setting up of arrangements which will stimulate continued growth after the teacher has accepted permanent employment on a school faculty. At long last, educators appear to be laying aside their boxing gloves, settling their differences, and experimenting with coöperative plans in which the schools serve as a laboratory and proving ground, and the colleges become a source of consultative service for school improvement programs.

Many of these programs provide for arrangements between colleges and schools which assure mutual benefits. One such is the agreement between Michigan State College and the Battle Creek Public Schools:

It is agreed between the Battle Creek Public Schools of Battle Creek, Michigan, and the Division of Education at Michigan State College that for a period of one year from date these two institutions will coöperate in a teacher training program as follows:

1. That student assistant teachers shall be placed in the Public Schools with common consent of the college, the supervising teachers, and the assistant teachers. The wishes of the supervising teachers, the administration of the schools, the college and the student assistants shall be given consideration in determining the details of the working program.

Teachers shall be given an opportunity to state whether or not they

¹ This resolution was adopted by the Board of Education of the School District of the City of Battle Creek, Michigan, at its regular meeting held February 18, 1946.

wish to have student teachers and shall so indicate their willingness by filing an application with the Division of Education. The application shall be continuing in nature and will be filed once and then remain in the files of the Division of Education where it will be kept up to date and used as a part of the personnel records of the Division.

After applications are filed selection will be made coöperatively between the college staff in Teacher Training and the school administration officers. Preference will favor those supervising teachers who have spent most time and effort in professional improvement.

Each term a list will be presented to the principals of the schools concerned containing the names of the student assistant teachers and the teachers to whom they are assigned to work. Principals shall approve such a list before the students are notified concerning their assignment.

It is understood that the assignments will not be made until the student assistant and the supervising teachers have determined whether desirable conference periods would be available throughout the term. Study hall and library periods are not considered acceptable as periods for conference.

It is further understood that the supervising teachers will coöperate in the use of such rating forms as are currently used by the college. Such forms will be provided by the college near the end of the quarter, referred to the supervising teacher concerned at the beginning of the following quarter, and by mid-term filed with the Director of the Division. The purpose of the rating is to assist the total personnel in professional growth.

2. That in consideration of the services rendered by the Battle Creek Public Schools, Michigan State College shall grant to the Battle Creek Board of Education a service fee of _____ for each student assistant teacher, for a full quarter, at least half of which shall be paid to the supervising teacher within the system.

It is further agreed that no supervising teacher shall have more than two assistant teachers under her supervision during any term, and that there shall not be more than one assistant teacher in any class. Consultancy service is obtained from the college for various phases of the in-service training program in addition to the supervision and consultancy work which are a part of the agreement. A series of conferences on guidance with the college furnishing the staff has been held. Members of the school staff have taught certain courses for the college, and the college staff has assisted with studies and surveys in the school system.²

An important aspect of school-college coöperation on in-service programs is the making of arrangements whereby members

² This agreement was signed by the Board of Education of Battle Creek, Michigan, and Michigan State College in September, 1948.

of teachers college faculties are given an opportunity for field work and are put in touch with the down-to-earth problems of the school system and the modern schoolroom. Such procedure helps to remove the criticism occasionally heard about teachers or college staff members to the effect that they are living in ivory towers or are out of touch with education as it is practiced, and that they are failing to prepare young teachers for the modern classroom situation.

In a conference at St. Mary's Lake Camp in Battle Creek, Michigan, in October, 1948, a group of school administrators and teacher training faculty members agreed upon the following statement as expressing their point of view on "The Responsibility of Institutions for In-service Education":

- a. Teacher training institutions have a responsibility in preparing teachers for in-service growth.
- b. Teachers college courses should stress the child development point of view more and subject matter less as a conditioning process for in-service growth.
- c. Better selection of candidates for teaching is sorely needed.
- d. It is found that good prospects for teaching come from places where teachers enjoy teaching.
- e. More courses in more fields should be taught in the manner we wish teachers to teach; that is, through group planning.
- f. Many colleges do not give programs of preparation for teaching until student teaching has taken place. We recommend more and earlier contacts with children and adults for the college professor, as well as the student teacher.
- g. Educational leadership is not present in many school situations, and this tends to react badly on the teacher training program as well as the development of new teachers.
- h. We want a better quality of high-school students enrolling in teacher training courses, and this can come through efforts of the local community to help select prospective teacher candidates.
- i. Teacher training is a continuing responsibility of the college; therefore, work with children and adults is essential for all teachers.
- j. This problem becomes a joint responsibility of the local school district and teacher training institutions.

Other types of coöperative arrangements for consultative service with institutions have also proved of considerable value

in stimulating growth and in arousing interest in the experimental approach to the solution of certain school problems. Two illustrations (2) will be given here:

The Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation

The Battle Creek Schools became one of the twelve schools associated with the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute in 1946. The purpose of the Institute is to provide consultant service, publications, and other assistance to the associated schools in carrying on curriculum studies of mutual interest to the Institute and the associated schools.

In the Senior High School a committee, formed in response to a faculty study, worked on outlines for a course, "Basic Living," to be required of all 10th graders. Consultant service for conferences with the committee and entire faculty helped in identifying the needs of 10th graders through an analysis of "Mooney Problem Check Lists" administered the previous year. Aims, content, and teaching procedures were developed and the plan was accepted by the whole faculty subject always to further study and evaluation. Institute consultant service has been instrumental in developing the whole program.

In the elementary schools a need was expressed for a "Science Guide" to help teachers in presenting the concepts of science to elementary children. The Council on Instruction designated a committee to develop such a guide during the year 1947-48 and recommended that Institute service be obtained. The consultant met several times with the committee, gave suggestions as to direction, content and form, helped to write and revise the guide and met with the faculty of one school to explain, answer questions, and seek further suggestions from those who would use such a guide. For 1948-49 the consultant has been requested to work intensively with two or three school faculties in implementing the guide, and helping to simplify or expand the guide where revision is necessary.

The Institute, through a questionnaire survey, studied ways of working in the Battle Creek Schools. A summary of the questionnaire results was valuable in pointing the direction for curriculum revision and supervisory practices, and indeed assisted in the original planning for the Council on Instruction.

Representatives of the local schools have attended workshops and conferences sponsored by the Institute, for the study and coordination of joint efforts. In 1947, the local system was host to the Spring Conference at St. Mary's Lake, then the Battle Creek School Camp.

Improved ways of working together and specific help in curriculum areas have resulted from cooperation with the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute.

The Bureau for Intercultural Education

Under authorization of the Board of Education, the Battle Creek Public Schools work closely with the Bureau for Intercultural Education with a view to improving our educational procedures and practices in the promotion of respect for personality and for one another's rights among the students. Consultants from the Bureau are scheduled throughout the year to confer with a central committee on Human Understanding which is composed of members from the Council on Instruction, staff members, student representatives, and representative laymen. Through coöperative planning specific projects and problems are selected by the central committee. The consultant service, the research findings, and the prepared materials are made available to all members of the teaching corps. Special gifts from local groups have provided enriched instructional materials in the form of books, pamphlets, films and records.

Resolution Concerning Coöperation with the Bureau for Intercultural Education³

RESOLVED, that the Public Schools of the City of Battle Creek are hereby authorized to coöperate fully with the Bureau for Intercultural Education in the study, development, and promotion of educational procedures and practices which will make more effective the schools' efforts to bring better understanding between all groups of citizens in the City of Battle Creek and which will promote better understandings of peoples not only in the United States of America but throughout the world, looking toward the day when, through international understanding and good will, peace may become permanent over the world.

SUCCESSFUL PROGRAMS OF INSTRUCTIONAL IMPROVEMENT ARE BASED ON DEFINITE PROCEDURES

There follows an account of a program of in-service education which has been democratically developed in the school system of Battle Creek, Michigan. It is not complete, because each year new developments take place as the program of educational improvement moves forward.

These various forms of in-service activities are described, some briefly and others in greater detail, to show how the programs are actually working out in practice. Stress is placed up-

³ This resolution was adopted by the Board of Education of the School District of the City of Battle Creek, Michigan, at its regular meeting held January 21, 1946.

on the coöperative planning aspects rather than upon the details of the in-service projects.

Workshops Are Very Effective

The summer workshop has become a regular feature of the school system. The committee which plans the workshops is set up in the spring and works closely with the Council on Instruction in arriving at the special areas which will receive intensive consideration. Regular college credit is arranged for those desiring it. Workshop personnel is recruited from various colleges and universities and from the local school staff. The costs are borne largely by the Board of Education, including part of the living arrangements in the school camp at Clear Lake. The areas of special attention desired by the teachers enrolled in the summer of 1948 included language arts, social studies (general education), science, child development, supervision, and outdoor education. The workshop usually runs for two weeks, and two hours of college credit may be earned by anyone who wishes it.

The following material concerning the core program in Battle Creek secondary schools was drawn up by the junior and senior high-school teachers participating in the core workshop held at St. Mary's Lake Camp on January 17, 1947:

I. Why do we have a core program?

1. It gives the children the chance to stay longer with one teacher (more opportunity for guidance).
2. It makes easier the transition from the one-teacher (elementary) to the several-teacher (senior high) situation.
3. It gives the opportunity for easy correlation of English and Social Studies (or other subjects). It allows a broader area of study under one teacher.
4. There is more opportunity to deal with individual differences, to promote growth in citizenship and personality.
5. There are less closely drawn subject matter lines.
6. The teacher's load is lightened by having fewer individual students to work with.

II. How is our program organized and carried out?

There is no uniform program of core in Battle Creek, as it is felt that the most effective core programs are the ones that are developed through

She visited parents, arranged for regular conferences with students and in some instances with parents, and reported back to the teachers with suggestions for coöperative efforts. Democratic relationships were established with all the people concerned. The visiting teacher often checked with social welfare agencies about ways of improving services to children. She became part of a team composed of the home, the school, and community agencies working for the best growth of the child. Case histories were written for some students. Records of conferences and of progress in behavior and adjustment were kept. Close coöperation was developed with the area children's (psychiatric) clinic. The visiting teacher referred parents to the clinic for study and treatment of their children. When the occasion seemed appropriate she informed the parents about the professional work of psychologists and psychiatrists.

Milton Is a Typical Case

The visiting teacher's notes show how the program centers around the needs of the child. A typical case is described but the names and situations are fictitious.

Teacher's Notes

Milton was not referred to me in the usual manner by a teacher. In fact, the first contact I had with him was when his friend Zelma asked permission to bring him for a conference. Zelma had explained to me confidentially that Milton "helped himself" to money at his father's paint store. Zelma knew that Milton was not taking the money because he was a bad boy. On the contrary, he was one of the better boys in her classroom. Money stolen was always spent on someone else. Milton's mother and father seemed blameless for they gave Milton everything he wanted. Zelma knew Mrs. X, Milton's mother, very well as Mrs. X was her "Bluebird" leader. All the girls loved her. Milton used to go to the meetings because his mother was the leader, but some of the

Comment

Confidence in the teacher was shown here by both pupils. There was also a free situation with no compulsion.

Excessive shyness and insecurity was shown by the boy here.

*Teacher's Notes**Comment*

girls had complained about this so Mrs. X recommended that Milton join the Cub Scout troop. Milton went to Cub meetings twice, then dropped the organization, professing to have a headache when the next meeting was scheduled.

Social welfare agencies were not acquainted with the X family since there had been no occasion to render them service. Milton's classroom teacher consented to Milton's seeing the visiting teacher although she questioned the need for such a conference since he was one of the brightest boys in her room. He had never been a discipline problem and always seemed eager to take part in activities suggested by the children or the teacher. It was true Milton did not join the rough and tumble games but she thought nothing of that as one of her own boys preferred music to sports. Mrs. X had recently expressed a desire to give Milton music lessons so perhaps he had musical ability too. Also he was one of the better art pupils.

The teacher who had had Milton the previous year related a similar picture of Milton's coöperation. It, however, was the teacher two years previous to the present teacher, a Mrs. Davis, who had sensed a need for affection that she could not understand. Mrs. Davis had been very fond of Milton and because he was always wanting her to come over for supper, Mr. and Mrs. X often invited her and she had been a frequent visitor in their home. This teacher said it wasn't the older brother, Tom, who caused Milton's insecurity as the child had been extremely proud of Tom's success on the football and basketball teams. She was unable to put her finger on the trouble but she had sensed it. She felt Mrs. X would be happy to visit with the visiting teacher even if she found no adjustment problem to discuss.

The visiting teacher had checked with other social agencies for help in this case.

The boy's teacher did not understand all that was bothering him.

Here a teacher gave a clue to the behavior pattern and its solution or help.

teacher-pupil planning in individual buildings. The main points in the Battle Creek organization then are:

1. The opportunity for each school to exercise individuality of organization.
 2. No uniformity in teacher organization, which allows more freedom in teacher-pupil planning.
 3. A committee, with city-wide membership, working on the problems of the core program.
- III. What are some of our more important still unsolved problems?
1. How do you educate the parents and children to the change from traditional subject organization to a core program?
 2. How do you develop a framework of units?
 3. How do you teach skills in developing a unit of work?
 4. How do you bridge the gap between two grades that are not both organized on the core program?
 5. What preparation should a teacher have to teach core work?
 6. How do you acquire the understanding coöperation of the personnel of the faculty who do not have core?
 7. What sort of teaching materials are used? Where and how are they obtained?
 8. How does remedial work fit into a core program?
 9. What are some techniques to secure evidence of the effectiveness of a core program?
 10. How could a core course be organized at the 10th grade to provide for personal health needs?
 11. How could four teachers of separate 10th-grade subjects, having the same group, develop coöperatively a better program?

Preschool Conference

This program along with the postschool conference consists of a full week of work in August before pupils begin their classes and a week after classes are finished in June. Again a teachers' committee coöperates with the Division of Instruction in planning the work for these days.

The activities include large group meetings, small group committees, a day of visiting the industries and businesses of the area, and a final all-faculty session preceded by a picnic dinner at the school camp.

Program for Preschool Conference, August 30–September 3, 1948

Monday, August 30, 1948

8:00

Breakfast for new teachers—Ann J. Kellogg School Cafeteria

- 9:00 Coffee hour for all—Ann J. Kellogg School Cafeteria
- 10:00–11:30 General meeting—Ann J. Kellogg School Auditorium
- Greetings from:
- Battle Creek Teachers' Assn.—Otha McCracken, President
- Early Elementary Club—Frances Sergeant, President of group
- Parent-Teacher Council—Mrs. Russell Berd, President, City Council of P.T.A.
- Educational Advisory Council—Mr. Bryce Becker, President
- Council on Instruction—William M. Alexander, Asst. Superintendent
- Address—Education in an Age of Insecurity—Virgil M. Rogers, Superintendent
- 11:45– 1:00 Luncheon (complimentary) all 5th and 6th grade, 7th and 8th grade core teachers—Ann J. Kellogg School Cafeteria
- 1:30– 4:00 Faculty meetings in buildings
- Tuesday, August 31, 1948—Community School Day
- 10:00 General meeting—Ann J. Kellogg Auditorium
- 10:00– 4:00 Teachers visit industries—complimentary luncheon by Industry
- 6:30 Complimentary dinner at Masonic Temple by Industry

Wednesday, September 1, 1948

- 8:30–11:00 Meetings in building of principals and new teachers
- Other teachers in classrooms
- 1:00– 4:00 All teachers in classrooms

Thursday, September 2, 1948

- 8:30–11:30 Building studies
- Core meetings, etc.
- Arithmetic meeting—Ann J. Kellogg Cafeteria for some building staffs
- Miss Skinner—"Meaning Theory of Arithmetic"
- 1:00– 4:00 Building studies
- Workshop in arithmetic—Ann J. Kellogg Cafeteria

Friday, September 3, 1948

Special Meetings
New Teachers

8:30–10:00 Fireplace Room, Willard Library Bldg.

10:00–11:30 Tour of Library Building

Phys. Ed. Teachers

10:00–11:30 Room 112 & 113, W. K. Kellogg Jr. High Bldg.

Elem. Club Board	8:30-10:00	Board Room, Willard Library Bldg.
Com., Spec. Services	10:00-11:30	Board Room, Willard Library Bldg.
Executive Com. BCTA	8:30-10:00	Prof. Library, Willard Library Bldg.
Music Teachers	8:30-10:00	W. K. Kellogg Jr. High Music Room
Council on Instruction	10:00-11:30	Prof. Library, Willard Library Bldg.
Secretaries	10:00-11:30	Fireplace Room, Willard Library Bldg.
Kindergarten Teachers	10:00-11:30	Kdg. Room, Ann J. Kellogg School
Other teachers in buildings		
12:15	Luncheon at Clear Lake Camp	
	General meeting	
1:30	Address—"Some Neglected Areas of Education" Mr. Hugh Masters, Educational Director, W. K. Kellogg Foundation	
	Discussion	
	Recreation: Swimming	Horseshoes
	Canoeing	Volley Ball

Council on Instruction Identifies Problems for Study

The Council on Instruction of the Battle Creek Public Schools was organized by the Committee on Committees in the preschool planning period in 1947. It consists of teacher representatives from each building; and they, with representatives of the administrative and supervisory staffs, are responsible for (1) reporting problems from each building on which city-wide policies and plans are needed; (2) reporting to the buildings policies and plans recommended by the Council for consideration by the building faculty; (3) delegating specific jobs such as bulletins, guides, and conferences to the instructional committees and/or the Division of Instruction. Thus the Council is responsible to the building faculties. The plan for the Council was presented at the first faculty meeting in 1947-1948 by the principals, and building representatives were elected to the membership.

Ways of Working

At the first organizational meeting, during the preschool conference, the group discussed ways of working together. They also explored the main purposes of the organization, which were: (1) to provide better communication between schools and the administration, and among schools on both the same and different levels; (2) to insure better solutions of problems of a city-wide nature; (3) to avoid duplication of effort; and (4) to provide the basis for developing an improved philosophy which would underlie the efforts of each individual working in the public schools.

Identifying Problems

It was decided to begin by having each member return to his building with a definite task—since the council members were to act as a council, not as sixteen individuals—and to report uniformly to faculties from notes taken at the meetings and distributed to each member before the building faculties met. As the Council's problems for the year were to come from the faculties, each member was to report at the first regular council meeting:

1. Problems proposed for city-wide study.
2. Intensive or extensive approach to problems.
3. Priority given to problems by faculties.
4. Problems to be studied intensively by each building.
5. Extension courses desired.
6. Saturday or other in-service conferences desired.
7. Opinions and desires on exchange for faculty (building) meetings.
8. Suggestions for all-city faculty meetings.

Armed with these agenda, each member was given time in his own building meetings to discover the needs of his faculty. When these problems were reported to the Council they were written on the blackboard. When all the problems had been re-

ported, along with the suggested method of attack, intensive or extensive, they were consolidated and summarized by the Council in order that the number of problems would be such that it could accomplish concrete results.

The problems selected (on the basis of the frequency with which they were mentioned) were:

For intensive and immediate study:

Reports to parents.

Handicrafts and arts.

Science instruction.

Music teaching skills.

For extensive study:

Arithmetic skills.

Parent education.

Public relations.

Health.

For intensive and extensive study:

Visual aids.

Language arts.

Character and civic education.

Child growth and development.

Instructional materials.

The process by which these problems were gathered, reported, and finally selected was as follows: The Council representatives listed the felt needs of their faculties; the faculty members reported their own individual problems which were added to the general list; and the lists were consolidated with general discussion and general consent of all the members. All topics were discussed, to be sure, but none were eliminated or consolidated without general consent. When everyone was satisfied with the classification of problems, the list was discussed in terms of the best method of attack on each problem. The usual method involved the appointment of a committee including one member of the Council to represent its needs and wishes.

Requirements for Periodic Study Have a Place

The salary schedule which was jointly drawn up by the faculty and superintendent's staff contained a provision that those who receive a regular increment must complete six additional college hours or the equivalent over a four-year period. Upon the recommendation of the superintendent and with the approval of the Board of Education, travel and certain work experience may be accepted in lieu of credit earned by college attendance.

Travel Is Necessary for Professional Growth

Here is a description of the policy⁴ governing travel for credit in lieu of college attendance requirements:

- I. Types of travel experience
 - A. Extensive travel within the United States, covering a large number of states and a period of several weeks or months, may be substituted for one, two, or three credits, depending upon extent of trip, value of experience, educational activities involved.
 - B. Specialized projects in the form of research in science, sociology, geology, anthropology, etc., concerned with specific approved areas, under authorized sponsorship, may be substituted for one, two, or three credits.
 - C. Extensive travel in foreign lands with approved plans for broadening one's educational outlook and cultural background may be substituted for three to six credits.
- II. Suggested travel projects
 - A. Historical and Sociological: Tours of states, cities, landmarks, national parks, national monuments, national shrines, capitals, cathedrals, museums, ghost towns, battlefields, Indian reservations, waterways, etc., with detailed plan for study, collecting data, seminars, and personal observation.
 - B. Scientific: Biological, botanical, geological, anthropological, ethnological, geographical studies, researches, tours, workshops, or camps.
 - C. Travel in America and Abroad: Should provide extensive educational, recreational, and social values, and opportunities to broaden and deepen one's interregional and intercultural appreciations and understandings. Wider knowledge of the problems, economics, traditions, and culture patterns of other regions, na-

⁴ Adopted by the Board of Education, Battle Creek, Michigan, 1947.

tions, and peoples should be gained through the planned programs of travel.

III. Procedure

- A. Fill out the outline form available at the Superintendent's Office.
- B. Make a comprehensive follow-up report upon completion of the travel experience, summarizing with a candid evaluation of the project.
- C. The project is appraised by school officials and credit allowed. Whenever possible, teacher committees will be used to assist in evaluating travel experience for credit. Travel credit will not be applied towards the salary increases (\$100.00 per six hours of approved college work) allowed persons holding the M.A. degree.

APPLICATION FOR CREDIT CONCERNING TRAVEL FOR PROFESSIONAL GROWTH

1. Name School
Address Date
2. Title of projected trip:
3. Areas to be covered:
4. Approximate length of trip: miles days
5. Educational experiences of value to teaching anticipated, and special plans for getting most from travel experience, etc.
6. Upon completion of the travel experience, it is understood that a comprehensive statement covering experiences, educational values gained, and description of entire trip will be filed with this application before credit is approved and recorded.

ACTION:

APPROVED FOR HRS. CREDIT: Date
Assistant Superintendent

APPROVED FOR HRS. CREDIT: Date
Superintendent

CREDIT ALLOWED hrs.
..... hrs. credit recorded
(date) Secy. to the Supt.

Consultant Service Is a Necessity

The schools have budget provisions which make possible the employment of specialists from higher institutions of learning

when they are needed by the various working groups in the city schools. During the year these include resource people for the workshops and week-end conference leaders in specialized fields, e.g., day conference sponsored by the language arts group, and week-end clinic sponsored by the social studies committee. Speakers for general faculty meetings are provided for in the budget, as well as speakers for parents' groups and other school meetings. Consultants are invited to meet with groups in the schools and to make recommendations on certain phases of the work.

*Travel Allowances for Conventions and School Visiting
Are Essential*

A liberal appropriation is incorporated in the school budget for paying the expenses of staff and classroom teacher representatives to certain regional, state, and national educational conferences and conventions. The point of view here is that local school people not only should keep in touch with developments elsewhere but that they have a contribution to make to such meetings. The school system is represented on scores of educational conference programs during the school year.

Special arrangements are made for giving representative faculty members an opportunity to visit selected school systems annually to study certain phases of other educational programs. Recently the schools acquired two station wagons which are used when six or eight people are going to the same conference or school.

Intravisation in the school system has proved very helpful when carefully planned with staff consultants and principals.

*Released Time Must Be Provided for Special In-service
Activities*

Great care must be exercised to avoid the danger of the personnel's being placed under excessive pressure which may result from adding to the normal teaching load. This can and

must be avoided if good teacher morale is to be maintained.

Provision is made for substitute teachers when classroom personnel are assigned to special tasks. For example, the half day each month spent by all the members of the Council on Instruction is taken care of by providing substitutes. The same is true of the Committee on Special Services which also meets for a half day each month. Persons who put in time at the central office on curriculum work are provided with substitutes.

Annual teachers meetings are held on school time so that no one will feel that the special programs, which are arranged by a teacher committee and the administration, are "dragged in" as extras, but rather are part of the educational effort.

Coöperation with the State Department of Education Is Helpful

Much valuable aid is provided by the special departments in the office of the state department of public instruction. This service is available to almost all the committees and can be used to great advantage on the problems with which the schools are concerned at a given time. The bulletins, guides, and conferences which the state department furnishes are likewise of great help in stimulating interest in the different curriculum areas. This type of supervision appears to be the most valuable service the state department can render.

It takes thoughtful planning on the part of the local school system to use to the best advantage the excellent contributions to educational improvement which the state department can make.

EFFECTIVE EVALUATION AND REPLANNING ARE CONSTANT NEEDS

Constant evaluation of the educational program is an essential activity in any school system. It is especially necessary in all in-service educational programs.

Teacher committees, selected by their peers and working with the administration, can do a splendid job in keeping the

programs practical, down-to-earth, and in harmony with the teachers' interests and needs.

One such committee is appointed each year in one school system to evaluate the year's program and report to the general faculty at the final meeting in June. This meeting is anticipated with real pleasure. Only an administration that believes its relationships to be honest and fair with all its personnel can afford such meetings.

Another committee of teachers prepared the following statement of obligations of teachers which was sent out in bulletin form to the entire corps (1).

1. Affiliation with local, state, and national professional associations.
2. Participation in meetings within the school system that are designed for the professional growth of teachers (such meetings might include a very few Saturday conferences).
3. Study of new techniques and knowledge within the field of teaching involved, by reading current books and articles, conferences with resource people when possible, and other types of study.
4. Adherence to the Code of Ethics, particularly in contacts with lay persons in the community.
5. A wholesome interest in and sympathetic relationship with boys and girls.

Still another committee, in its search for ways of developing effective evaluative techniques in stimulating on-the-job information, devised the following list of selected questions for self-evaluation by teachers:

- I. Have I improved in personal characteristics?
 1. In my self-control at all times?
 2. In getting all necessary and available evidence before I reach decisions?
 3. In willingness to listen to and evaluate objectively new ideas?
 4. In attacking my work energetically?
- II. Have I improved in social and professional relationships?
 1. In sincere concern for the welfare of all children and adults with whom I work?
 2. In dealing honestly and objectively with all my associates?
 3. In doing my part with my fellow workers, children, and parents to accomplish whatever goals we agree upon?

4. In making constructive suggestions for the improvement of our educational program?
5. In supporting the decisions and accepted policies of the majority?
- III. Have I improved in professional skills?
 1. In seeking improvement through continued professional study?
 2. In maintaining a clean and cheerful environment for my pupils?
 3. In developing and exploring original ideas and plans for my work?
 4. In providing for the range of abilities and interests of my pupils?
 5. In attending and participating in all faculty meetings and study groups where I can give or receive help?
 6. In asking for and using wisely any specialized help available, such as counsellors, nurses, principals, and supervisors?
 7. In maintaining reasonable standards of achievement for each pupil?
 8. In maintaining a democratic working relationship among my pupils?

The greatest risk a school system runs in formulating such a program as described in this chapter would appear to be in failing to develop suitable machinery for the job, in carrying on busy work and perhaps losing out by not carefully planning to use teachers' groups and committees, thus destroying the enthusiasm and spontaneity which are assured when real and specific problems, interest, and needs of teachers are dealt with at the grass-roots level.

All in-service work should be centered around areas and problems which have interest and concern for definite groups of the teaching personnel. It is difficult to isolate an area or problem which appeals to all; but even a small group dealing with a real problem generates great interest.

At all costs the administration must make certain that whatever in-service programs are launched are not added to the load of teachers as extras. Provision must be made to ease the teaching load and the outside pressures if in-service jobs are really to achieve their purposes.

The morale of the faculty is of first concern. If details cannot be worked out to preserve and improve the general attitude of teachers toward their work, all the "on-the-job" training in the world will come to naught.

Finally, it is our studied conviction, after many years of observing groups and of working with school faculties, that most teachers are sincere, hard-working, professionally-minded people, and that, given a chance to share realistically in the overall planning for improving the instructional program, they will come more than halfway in coöperation. When teachers have a part in formulating broad plans for professional growth while on the job and under favorable teaching conditions, the superintendent will find not only that such democratically planned and administered programs are splendid means of improving the general level of education but that, as the community catches the spirit of the teachers, the criticisms of the schools become more objective, efforts toward home-school coöperation more unified, and there is often greater generosity in school support as a welcome by-product.

QUESTIONS

1. Why have teachers' meetings so often been thoroughly disliked by staff members? Are staff meetings today better received than those in the past? Are there guiding principles that should be followed in the organization of staff meetings?
2. How should evaluation play a role in staff planning? What fundamental principles govern a sound evaluation program? What are limitations in the evaluation of an educational program?
3. How might a staff spend its time when it is employed on a twelve-month basis? What are the strong points in a twelve-month program? What are danger points in a twelve-month program?
4. What in-service education programs are needed for school principals? In what way is their role in the educational program different from that of the teachers? What are the characteristics of a good principal?
5. Should staff meetings be held? Should staff meetings be an extra burden for teachers? How can the teacher's load be lightened so that he will have more time for staff meetings?

PROBLEM

Diagram an organizational pattern for an in-service education program for teachers. Are all groups in the community represented in your chart? What groups should receive first consideration in planning an in-service education program?

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IX

School and Community Coöperation Through a Visiting Teacher Service

Many kinds of activities that have not been considered "education" in the past are becoming more and more a part of the public educational program in American communities today. A community program of education now may include shop classes for adults, evening classes in agriculture, lay participation in planning committees, canning centers, recreation programs, and many other activities. One type of service that many schools now offer is that given by the teacher trained in social and psychological work; she is known in Michigan as a *visiting teacher*. The visiting teacher's responsibility is to study and help students, teachers, and parents who have unusual problems of adjustment in school, family, and society.

The visiting teacher program is designed primarily to help children with unusual difficulties make the necessary social adjustments. The program also (1) enhances school-community relations, (2) promotes staff growth in handling individual differences, and (3) assists parents in understanding their children. The school staff, parents, and representatives of health,

welfare, and other community agencies often coöperate with the visiting teacher, because they can render service to the well-being of the school child. In other words, the visiting teacher is a team member in a common task. Parents, on the one hand, are anxious to further the purposes of the school; the visiting teacher, on the other hand, is in a strategic position to show parents how they can contribute to the educational program. The visiting teacher has a liaison position in the school organization.

A VISITING TEACHER PROGRAM DEVELOPS COÖPERATIVELY

Our nation faces problems involving deep social and educational needs. Many communities in the postwar years have been concerned about the number of students who leave school as soon as is legally possible, about the amount of so-called "juvenile delinquency," and about other problems concerning the adjustment of young people to school and society. It was problems such as these that encouraged the leaders of two suburban school districts to coöperate in planning a visiting teacher program.¹ They hoped that the addition of a visiting teacher to their staff might be an economical and effective way of improving the program for the guidance of students, parents, and teachers.

The coöperation of the teachers, school administrators, and boards of education of the two school districts in putting the plan into operation was itself an example of democratic action. In 1945 the members of the two boards of education held joint meetings to discuss employing a visiting teacher. Part of the program was planned in these meetings and a method of sharing the cost was adopted. The arrangement has continued for five years.

¹ Holt, Michigan, is an unincorporated region of about 5000 inhabitants in the "fringe" area south of Lansing, the capital of Michigan. There are several elementary-school districts near Holt. The largest of these is the North (or Miller Road) school district, part of whose students attend high school in Holt, and part in Lansing. The two districts coöperated in drawing up a visiting teacher program for the community.

In the beginning the visiting teacher met with the faculties of the schools to describe the type of service she was qualified to offer. The superintendent explained the school leaders' ideas about the program, stressing the freedom which the teacher should have in her methods of work. He mentioned the advantages that might result from helping teachers and parents to understand better the problems of youth, and also the value of helping young people to see more clearly the viewpoint of adults. He pointed out that conferences between students and parents would be treated as confidential. Similar meetings were held with the members of the two boards of education.

The understanding which the lay members of the board have had concerning the visiting teacher's work and their interpretation of the program to the public have been strong points in the operation and success of the program. Both at the inception of the program and many times since, board members and laymen have paid tribute to the vital nature of the relationships made clear to the people by the work of the visiting teacher. Some board members who were somewhat skeptical about the need for a different approach other than the traditional to school problems, have changed their opinions and expressed their support as the program increasingly helped individuals and families.

Soon teachers were referring students to the visiting teacher and the students themselves were seeking interviews for help with personal and family problems, school adjustment problems, and the like. The superintendent of schools also referred certain students to the visiting teacher when the program first started. This is ordinarily not necessary today, because the guidance work is usually instituted before the superintendent needs to make referrals.

The individual conference is the backbone of the visiting teacher program. The visiting teacher in the Holt system began her work with such conferences, counseling with students, teachers, and parents about their school and family problems.

Teacher's Notes

Mrs. X was puzzled when the visiting teacher telephoned for an appointment but was very gracious in inviting her to call. The interview was nearly over before Mrs. X could bring herself to mention the trouble she had been having with Milton. She had thought of going to the children's clinic but just couldn't face the ordeal. She had been on the verge of telling Mrs. Davis, but was afraid Mrs. Davis would not understand and might feel Milton was a bad boy. Mrs. X was very glad to be able to talk to someone about it and hoped she could get help without going to the children's clinic.

In the next few interviews with Mrs. X she reviewed her unhappy childhood as an only child, the death of her parents and her adoption, but most of all she talked of her loneliness. She had always wanted more than anything else to have a baby girl to love and dress up and adore. Her disappointment was great when her first child was a boy. She had enjoyed him after the initial disappointment and didn't mind so much when Tom, the second child, was a boy. After waiting so long for Milton and planning so for a baby girl, she was greatly disappointed to have Milton instead of Mildred. Milton was her mother's name; it was her own name until her adoption. She picked the name Milton over her husband's protests because of its similarity to Mildred and Mildred was a name that she had always loved. She even named her dolls Mildred when she was a child and her dolls had been very real people. Mrs. X loved her boys—especially Milton. In fact, she and her husband planned their whole lives around their children. When they went anywhere their children were always included. She felt that she had failed with her boys, but could not identify the source of the trouble.

Comment

Rapport was established with the parent.

The parent released tension in being able to talk with someone about her problems with the boy.

The psychological causes of the maladjustment became fairly apparent here.

Teacher's Notes

Mrs. X was helped to see that Milton's stealing might have been directed against his parents because he felt he was not wanted. She recalled more and more incidents to back up this thinking and realized that when she had said to Milton, as she had often done, that it would have been so nice if he had been a girl, he interpreted this as meaning that she did not love him enough because he was a boy.

Mrs. X was able to work out her problems with Milton and they became very close to each other. The visiting teacher tried to help the boy to bring the problems to light so that he could cope with them. It was Milton who suggested, several months later, that mother have a boarding home and take a girl or two from the courts. He was very busy by that time with scouting activities and music. He also helped his father in the store during vacations and on Saturdays during school months.

Comment

The boy's need for her affection was interpreted for the mother.

The student was helped too with his mental hygiene and understanding of his mother.

Greater security was indicated for the parent and child partly as a result of the work of the visiting teacher.

Some Data on Services Show Program Scope

Over a period of four years one visiting teacher working in schools with a total enrollment of about 1400 students has had referred to her about 250 children. She does not accept some because, for various reasons, she does not feel that she can be of service in those particular cases. She works actively with the majority of the children brought to her attention. The length of time averages about nine months for each one. Some children have been under her counseling and guidance for as long as three years. The majority of cases are closed or dropped when the pupils no longer need direct help or leave the school system. Her case load is usually about fifty to seventy students.

THE VISITING TEACHER PROGRAM IS DEMOCRATIC IN ACTION

In Holt the visiting teacher has become an important creative agent for the improvement of education, especially as she

encourages coöperative interaction of parents, teachers, and students aimed at a better quality of human living. The visiting teacher works in a different setting than the typical school teacher. She is a consultant or guidance worker. As a general rule she is free of many of the administrative restrictions placed on the average classroom teacher. She may be, and frequently is, a faculty member "without portfolio" outside the line-staff administrative relationships. She has no administrative authority. The visiting teacher should have a private office and telephone and should be freed from routine teaching or administrative duties. She can then concentrate on trying to improve the individual adjustment of students. Freeing her from classroom work and routine duties gives her time to arrange needed conferences with students and faculty. She should be permitted to leave the school buildings and take students with her without an excessive amount of administrative red tape. Students should be permitted to come to her office at odd times without penalty. In other words, the visiting teacher should be in a position to free the student from the traditional blocks or frustrations found in typical public-school settings.

*The Visiting Teacher's Work Dovetails with Other
Efforts to Help Children*

Besides being a guidance leader for individuals, the visiting teacher is also a supplemental worker. She does not attempt to render community services that are already available to help students. As far as other institutions in the community are concerned, her work complements and supplements their services. This in no way belittles the contributions visiting teachers make to community life. In many instances the visiting teacher can give far more valuable service than other community agencies because the latter are often far removed from the individual child and his daily work at school. The type of individual counseling needed is beyond the efforts now practical for the average teacher in our crowded classrooms. She is too heavily

loaded down with other school duties to give thought and attention to home visitation. The visiting teacher bridges the gap between the school and the home. Her task is to improve the pupil's adjustment to both school and home.

The best visiting teacher has a deep understanding of basic personality needs and of the social characteristics that help people to become well adjusted to other people.

Qualifications for a Visiting Teacher Are High

The visiting teachers in Michigan are all former elementary or high-school teachers. In addition to this experience, a visiting teacher should have mastered the fundamental principles of sociology and psychology. Even more important, she should have had practical experience in social case work. The visiting teacher with vision knows that desirable personality growth is fostered when children have ideals that lift them above the all too frequent interest in self-indulgence. When children have character they are likely to have the more desirable personality attributes. By way of example, if children are reared in homes where there is an overindulgent and submissive family environment, they may be shocked to find that other people do not defer to their wishes. Such children frequently become problem children. In many instances their spirit is broken by the shock of finding that they are not as important as their family has led them to believe. Other children have the opposite reaction. They become defiant and fight people who oppose them. In other words, personality really involves a process of social conditioning that extends over a long period of time.

The Home Is a Cooperating Element

How the child feels about himself frequently is determined in the home as well as the school. Children and adults have adjustment difficulties today because of their attitude toward success and failure. Parents should realize that certain types of failure are inevitable and may be desirable. If failure is not too

serious in nature it may stimulate people to greater activity and more productive success over a long period of time. Parents and teachers should see clearly the part that such goals as success and failure play in the lives of children. When children consistently fail, they tend to show such reactions as these: They may set their goals very low, far below their ability to achieve goals, or they may show the opposite reaction and set their goals far above their native ability. Success and failure, as judged by marks in courses, are the primary source of friction between the school and the home. Here is an area where the visiting teacher with ability renders valuable service to teachers and parents. In many instances both the home and the school are far more concerned with marks than with the child's emotional development.

Few professional people are in such a strategic position as the visiting teacher to establish rapport between the school and the home. When parents and teachers help each other with children, it provides for both groups a quality of exaltation that cannot be described by merely describing the experience. The visiting teacher's position primarily involves human relationships. She comes to understand teachers both as professional workers and as people. She sees clearly the many emotional drives that cause parents to act as they frequently do toward their children. Finding ways for teachers and parents to work together for their mutual benefit is the art in the visiting teacher's work.

THE VISITING TEACHER SERVICE HAS AIDED COMMUNITY SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT

When a visiting teacher becomes the focal point for parent-school contacts, rapport and understanding seem to come rather naturally. One of the important advantages of the visiting teacher approach has been the slow yet progressive spread of ideas on mental health into the thinking of parents and teachers in the community. As they have dealt with real cases of maladjustment and with practical changes in the school curriculum

and family life to try to help children grow in the best manner to fit their individual needs, both teachers and parents have become more proficient with democratic techniques. Here in the hands of the experienced teacher a new pathway may be charted by which communities and other teachers may return to fundamental principles of growth and development of children. The visiting teacher program tends to lead people to operate democratically. It aims to build better people—better boys and girls. The child, the parents, the school leaders, and other individuals have often been able to sit down together in the old-fashioned common council to help each other. Such an approach should be encouraged for the improvement of public education in America.

In keeping with the developing philosophy of the community school, the legal framework enabling local school districts to establish a visiting teacher program with state aid is simple. The supervisory function of the state agency is limited and coöperative in scope. Visiting teachers should exhibit a high level of creative leadership among other teachers and administrators. They have had to learn to be creative, to seek resources in the people and communities in which they have worked. The state officers who direct the program have purposely insisted that the function of these teachers shall be confined to consultation. The local administrators of schools, in the best examples, also have insisted that the visiting teachers assume leadership in developing the programs. As indicated more fully below, one of the greatest values of the experiment has been the education of teachers, parents, and the students themselves in understanding the skills and processes necessary for personality and character development. This premise gives the local program the flexibility that is required for meeting the variety of local and individual needs. The visiting teachers in the state of Michigan present a variety of backgrounds in their training and skills. The local school has been able to obtain the type of visiting teacher who will be best able to meet the needs of the community. The visit-

ing teachers as a group have been encouraged by the state directors in their efforts to develop a professional spirit, a feeling of belonging to a group of trained workers who operate as members of local faculties and yet belong to a common movement to improve community understanding of personality needs.

BETTER REPORTS TO PARENTS IN HOLT HAVE RESULTED

A completely different method of contact with parents has developed since the visiting teacher program was initiated in the Holt school system. At first the system of written reports to parents was continuously revised as the elementary faculty moved away from marks to an analysis of what was happening to the individual child in his school and community relationships. More and more conferences were held with parents, until in 1948 the faculty inaugurated a system of parent-teacher conferences which replaced the older report cards entirely. Each elementary teacher scheduled at least two conferences of twenty to thirty minutes with one or both parents each year and found occasion to meet with parents two or three additional times per year. The teachers had already worked out in previous years much more time for conferences with and individual attention to students. The board of education allowed teaching groups to be away from time to time or hired substitute teachers so that the regular teachers could meet freely with parents in conference. The teachers and parents were enthusiastic about the closer relationship made possible by the series of contacts, each with the other. In the majority of cases parents have felt that they learned much more about their children's work from the conferences than from the traditional report card. In the conferences teachers have been able to give parents information on personality development and social growth that could not be effectively described on a report card. The conference method was extended to the seventh- and eighth-grade junior high-school years in 1949-1950.

THE TEACHING AND CURRICULUM HAVE IMPROVED

In addition to improving community service to individual children, the visiting teacher program has helped the schools to achieve the twofold aim of (1) improved teacher understanding of the growth needs of children, and (2) an improved curriculum.

One of the main purposes of keeping records of visiting teacher conferences and guidance methods is to help teachers see ways of improving their aid to the children. Each year since the beginning of the program in Holt the administrators and the visiting teacher have explained the possibilities of the service and its progress to the new members of the staff. In general, the members of the staff, the parents, and the students themselves try to become part of a team, all working for the common goal of improved instructional service to children. In-service training of the best type is involved in this democratic process. In working with the visiting teacher the so-called "classroom" teacher often gets an idea of how he can more effectively study children. He also learns more clearly than before when to seek help in problems of adjustment. There have been several changes in the pattern of referrals over a four-year period in the Holt schools. In the first place, few teachers now hesitate to ask help from the "outside" visiting teacher. There is general recognition by parents and teachers, as well as by the students, that other forces are at work in school helping to shape the personality of children besides the school itself. The teachers' understanding of the part they can play in augmenting the development of children has broadened. They now have a greater desire to help the child meet his own problems in the classroom.

A second major change is that the teachers are much more concerned about, and more likely to refer to the visiting teacher, the children who are shy, quiet, and sensitive, rather than those overactive, extrovert children that have traditionally bothered teachers—and turned out to be perfectly normal

adults. This emphasis on persons more likely to have emotional and social maladjustments conforms to the laws of mental hygiene and marks a step toward improved teaching. Improved attitudes toward people's basic needs have not been confined to the teaching staff alone; the parents' attitudes have changed as well.

A restatement of the aims of education in the Holt community was made in 1948 as a result of suggestions advanced at meetings of the teachers and parents. Over 200 people took part in this democratic process. They met in small groups and used the small-group techniques. They then presented their ideas to the faculty. The board of education had been favorably impressed by the success of the visiting teacher program and other influences and accordingly they sponsored a longer preschool conference for teachers and lay leaders. For the two years of 1948 and 1949, the faculty and families in the community have met at camp conferences during the first two days of the school year. In addition to the statement below of the aims of education, professional and social group action at these conferences has led to greater security and understanding among members of the staff. They have found common ways of attacking the emotional problem of pupil-teacher relations. Teachers, students, and parents who took part in these conferences indicated that they have gained a deeper appreciation of teachers as human beings.

THE AIMS OF A PUBLIC-SCHOOL PROGRAM WERE BROADENED

The following aims were named and agreed upon almost unanimously by the teachers and parents in parent-teacher meetings and the preschool conferences:

- I. The *Abilities* and *Competencies* that should be our aim:
 - A. Ability to have understanding and acceptance of himself (the student) as a human being: for instance—
 1. Ability to be healthy
 2. Ability to have self-discipline

3. Ability to do things to the best of his ability, being able to complete a job, to follow through
4. Ability to make wise decisions about himself in relation to issues and problems faced
- B. Ability to have understanding and acceptance of himself in relation to others: for instance—
 1. Having fair-play concepts and manners
 2. Ability to actively coöperate with all kinds of groups and all differences of ideas and opinions
 3. Ability to appreciate the beauty of things, and the skills and competencies of others
 4. Ability to understand and help people achieve the best in their different abilities—understanding of individual differences
 5. To know that improvement in society comes through production, and to act upon such knowledge
 6. Leadership abilities and leadership skills
 7. To be able to communicate adequately with others
- II. Achieving of *Responsibilities of a Democratic Society*: for example—
 - A. Achieving the ideal of unselfish service to the group
 - B. Seeing to it that the rights we should have are upheld in society, and helping to take away the unpleasantness of meeting social responsibilities and duties
 - C. Developing the necessary responsibility toward work
 - D. Taking care of one's health and the health of others

Some of the more detailed suggestions made by parents in Holt in relation to the aims of the program were as follows:

1. The junior high-school students should have their own parties and learn to dance in the physical education curriculum.
2. Hobbies should be stressed.
3. There should be more conferences between parents and teachers to get the background of the child's growth, development, and abilities.
4. There should be more agreement of parents and teachers on the type of discipline to be used.
5. Teachers should visit homes more and there should be more conferences of parents and students at school.
6. Home and family living techniques should be used throughout the grades.
7. The teacher should have a lighter work load in order to do all of these things.

8. Research should be done on drop-outs and the curriculum.

The viewpoint of these broad aims shows a great change from the older attitude that school was a place to drill into students the same set of fundamental skills, no matter what the needs and abilities of the particular student might be. Previous statements of the aims of education in the Holt schools were much less centered on individual child development, on personality growth and changes, on democratic methods for learning to get along with people in our society, and on parent-teacher-student relationships. The shift in emphasis was not, of course, entirely the result of the success of the visiting teacher program. Some of the shift, however, can be accounted for by the increased understanding of human growth that the faculty and parents have gained from their association with the visiting teacher and her methods.

IMPROVEMENTS IN THE HIGH-SCHOOL PROGRAM HAVE INCREASED

It is obvious that a philosophy as broad as the visiting teacher program we have described will have a stimulating effect on the guidance program of a school. Working with the visiting teacher and other teachers who were well grounded in the mental health needs of students helped to create in the high-school faculty of the Holt schools a desire to improve its guidance service to students. In 1948-1949 one teacher, in addition to the principal, was given time for regular conferences with students for educational and personal guidance and counseling. In 1949-1950 three teachers showed interest in this work and were allotted time for it in their schedule. Committees have been formed by the faculty to study the guidance services and other curriculum needs.

One of the methods that the Holt faculty has sought to use to improve its general educational offerings has been the development of the core or unified studies approach in the junior high school, the introduction of a general course in the tenth grade called Human Growth and Development, and a similar core

course in the senior year on home and family living. The curriculum study committee is continuously trying to find other ways of carrying out the school's objectives stated earlier. Democratic methods of learning and student-teacher planning have been attempted in these and other parts of the high-school program. Personality needs form a large part of the learning aspects of these parts of the curriculum.

Another example of better high-school education has been the improved tone of the relationships between students, and between students and teachers. Students seem to have different attitudes at the end of four years of experimentation with parent-teacher visiting. There are fewer downcast looks from students who have been traditionally regarded as somewhat queer. Students understand individual differences better than before. More students seem to go out of their way to help their fellows in various aspects of their school and social life. The student council movement is an adjunct of this attitude in its best sense, and has been favorably affected by the work of the visiting teacher in helping pupils adjust to school and community. High-school students are leaders in state organizations of students and student councils.

Most of the changes that have taken place in the Holt schools have occurred during the development of the visiting teacher program. There is now a much greater shifting and reshifting of instructional groups in all the classrooms in the schools, to meet the differing needs of students as they grow at different rates and according to different patterns. There is also greater use of instructional aids, trips, community resources, library materials, home background information, and other extensions of the traditional school method of dealing with the growth of children.

QUESTIONS

1. Should all teachers be visiting teachers? What are the arguments for this point of view? What road blocks make it difficult for all teachers to be visiting teachers?

2. How can a visiting teacher be most effective as a consultant at staff meetings? Should the visiting teacher hold special meetings with the school staff? How can a visiting teacher best convey information to the staff?
3. How can the visiting teacher work effectively with community groups? What service can she give the board of education? What service can she render community agencies?
4. What special services can the visiting teacher render for the administrator? What reports should she make to the administrator? What is her role in the organizational pattern of the school?
5. Should visiting teachers work with homes where the children are well adjusted or apparently so? What is a well-adjusted child? How should the visiting teacher try to find those in greatest need of counseling and guidance?

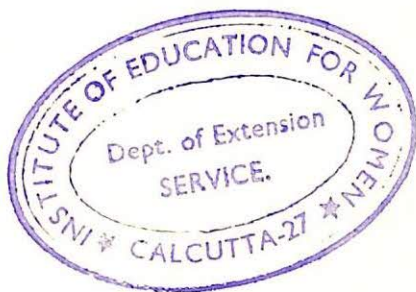
PROBLEM

List the various services a visiting teacher might render to a school and community. What special services should the visiting teacher stress?

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X

The Home and School Coöperate in Family Education

One of the crucial tests of theory of democratic administration is its application to program development. No more substantial area of the curriculum could be chosen for such a demonstration than education for family living. It was in this area that a need became clearly felt in Highland Park, Michigan. Gradually over a period of many years a program has evolved. From its very inception many groups, individuals, and institutions have contributed to its development. During this period the school and the community have learned to work together very effectively.

COMMUNITY EDUCATION MUST CONSIDER THE FAMILY

Home and family living education is a study of human relations. It deals with the individual in his relationship to his environment. Such factors are stressed as the individual's feeling of security, of status, of affection, of belonging, and of achieving. The study begins with the assumption that what man thinks and what he does affect not only himself but others

in his social group, and in turn determine the group's attitude toward him. His feelings about himself and his feelings toward others in his environment can be shaped and conditioned through education. Especially is this true when education is conceived as starting early in the individual's life. Here is one area of study that should give proper emphasis to the first six years of a child's life. Also this is a field that should stress the prevention of mental illness just as physiology and health courses strike at the causes of physical illness. Home and family life education is in a most favorable position to stress the psychological factors in human relations that determine to a marked degree the richness and abundance that people gain from daily living.

THE FAMILY IS IMPORTANT IN PRESENT-DAY CIVILIZATION

Eighty-five percent of all students attending high school marry, and 75 percent of those who marry have children. If the schools are supposed to meet the needs of young men and women, emphasis should be placed on education for family living. Even those who do not marry live in a home, usually with some other person or persons. They also have a role to play. As one unmarried woman expressed it while discussing education for home and family living, "The adventure of being an aunt is my role, one that, perhaps, for some of these prospective spinsters of the present generation deserves some attention" (2).

There are those who criticize the schools for attempting to teach home and family living. They claim that it does not belong in the province of the school but should be left entirely to the home. However, surveys of students and parents have shown that if it is left to the home, nothing is done in most cases. The parent does nothing because he is reluctant to attempt something for which he has no training, or training of the wrong kind. When the parent feels this inadequacy, he side-steps the problem. The child, sensing the parent's dilemma,

shies away from him and secures information elsewhere. Of course, many parents either do not care or are too busy with everyday living to be bothered with their most important job, the proper rearing of their children. If the school is to meet its obligation to the community, it should provide a program of instruction for parents in home and family living. People who are now parents need help as well as students who will someday be parents.

A Stable Home Is a Bulwark Against Juvenile Delinquency

Following World War II, court records show that there was a tremendous rise in the divorce rate. To a certain extent this was due to the great number of war marriages. The increase in juvenile delinquency was also alarming. It is difficult to estimate the damage to society caused by broken homes, with all their concomitant problems. "A broken home is a cancerous growth on the body politic, undermining the public welfare and economy. A united family is a community's social insurance safeguarding society to a very great degree against such pathological ills as juvenile delinquency, immorality, and crime in general" (14). The broken home and juvenile delinquency are tied closely together. "Clinical experience has demonstrated that rarely does a child become delinquent where the members of a family have successfully maintained love and affection for one another. The treatment of delinquency involves the treatment not of the individual but of the whole family constellation" (11:179-180).

Although the broken home is an impressive contributing factor to delinquency, Rogers properly points out that "while the facts are hardly conclusive they seem to indicate that the tenseness of a home where parents are deeply dissatisfied is worse so far as the children's behavior is concerned than is the home which is broken" (11:181).

The home in which both parents are living and which has all the aspects of a legal home may be far removed from what

may be called a psychological home. Apparently everything may be going well in this home. Its problems are not taken into the courts. The school may have little contact with it. The children attend school regularly, at least while in the lower grades. They appear to be well nourished and clothed, but the tensions and hostilities in this home may be slowly and subtly undermining the emotional health of all the members of this family, especially the emotional health of the children.

If symptoms of emotional instability do not show up while the children are young, there may be a psychological upheaval later in life which may cause great suffering to the individual and to those with whom he associates. Frequently such a person becomes a burden upon society. Many parents do not know how to establish a happy home where each person feels secure and is an important member of the family group. Such parents have not been trained for their most important task in life. Society has failed them. It has failed to use an institution, found in every community, that can provide a program of training for parenthood. That institution is the school.

HOW DOES THE PROGRAM OPERATE?

The schools in Highland Park include nursery school through junior college; consequently, the personnel who have a direct relationship with the home and family living program are the chairman of the homemaking department, the director of adult education, the home and family living counselor, and the nursery-school teachers, classroom teachers, counselors, and principals.

The chairman of the homemaking department is in charge of the administration and supervision of the entire homemaking program throughout the elementary schools, the high school, and the junior college. The home and family living counselor teaches home living courses in the senior high school and the junior college on a part-time basis, and is responsible for organizing programs in parent education in the elementary and

secondary schools. He also meets with individual students and parents in an advisory capacity, and is considered the technical expert in this area. The director of adult education arranges programs for parents, secures speakers, and assumes responsibility for the general administration of the program where adults are concerned. The nursery-school teachers work with youngsters $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 years of age and with the high-school and junior-college students who are assigned to the nursery school for a certain number of hours a semester. The responsibilities of the regular counselor in the high school and junior college are twofold: (1) in-service training of teachers, and (2) work in the field of personal guidance, both with individual students and with groups of students. The classroom teacher assumes the responsibilities directly related to his department. The principal of the school is the coördinator whose main function is to integrate the entire program of his particular school and to assume the responsibilities pertinent to the smooth functioning of all the departments and activities of the school. It is his duty to see that proper leadership is provided, stimuli given, and assistance made available for the promotion of a well-integrated, well-balanced, and effective program.

Required and Elective Courses Are Offered

All students are required to take homemaking courses in Grades 5 through 9B. At the twelfth grade each boy and girl is required to take at least one semester of homemaking. Other regular homemaking courses are elective and available from Grade 9A through the junior college. In these courses the emphasis is upon the broad general program of home living education. Most of the homemaking courses from Grades 9B through the junior college are carried on in home management houses. These apartments are furnished and equipped to give the girls a wide range of experience in a natural home situation. Near these home management houses is the nursery school where children from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 years old are under the supervision

of teachers and students from 9:00 A.M. to 3:00 P.M. each day. Units in human relations are integrated in the social studies courses in Grades 9, 10, and 11. Teachers of these social studies courses are given close supervision and assistance by the home and family counselor in developing and teaching these units. In the twelfth grade a one-semester course in home and family living is required of all students, boys and girls. This course will be described in greater detail later in this chapter.

The Program Is an Integration of Many Areas of Study

The home and family life course cuts across nearly every field of the school program. In fact, in some situations it might properly encompass the entire curriculum. In many of the core programs today social studies are used as a base for the integration of other subjects. The home and family life program might also well be used for such a base. This program is inclusive enough to bring within it almost all phases of personal living. Rightfully a part of home and family life education are such areas as education for marriage, sex education, education for motherhood and fatherhood, child guidance and development, character development, nutrition, health education, budgeting and family income, house furnishings, care of the sick, and human relations in and outside the home. These areas are all interdependent and interrelated and should be taught as integrated subject matter.

Home and family life education, then, is an integration of many areas of study—of the social sciences, biology, philosophy, art, English, guidance, and the physical sciences. In fact, it deals with the individual in every aspect of living. There are few if any areas that offer such a promising opportunity for the blending of ideas into a unitary approach in education.

There Is a Coöperative Use of Personnel in the Program

The personnel who work directly with the program include teachers, supervisors, members of the community, social agen-

cies, school psychologists, resource people from universities and colleges, and the state department of public instruction. Some of the most effective contributions may come from social agencies, the juvenile court, a visitor passing through the community, or parents in it.

The good teacher of home and family living has vision. He plans and organizes his work and exercises initiative and imagination in developing the program. In the same connection the teacher of home and family education should feel free to experiment with new and different ideas. To be most effective he should work in a school system where there is coöperation and freedom of endeavors, where a premium is placed on ideas, and where there is respect for the personalities of others. If there are jealousies and sharp cleavages among the departments of the school and an autocratic administrative control, the effectiveness of the program will be seriously impaired.

Much emphasis needs to be placed on the importance of coöperative planning by the teachers in the various departments, the administration, and the students and their parents. The home and family life department should not be just another phase of the school program, nor should it be a kingdom within itself nor an island around which the rest of the school activities flow. It should be a definite part of the entire school program.

People working in this area should be well informed in the field of human relations. They should know how to get along with other people, work with other people, plan with other people, and they should be able to carry out the program with other people. They should not try to play a lone hand. They should make other departments feel that every department is an indispensable part of the entire school program, and that each department has much to offer for the development of young people. Unfortunately, there is often a certain amount of jealousy among the departments in any school system. This can be overcome in part if those who work in the home and family life program can show through evaluation that their program is for the common good of all.

COÖPERATION IS THE ESSENCE OF GOOD SCHOOL-HOME
RELATIONSHIPS

The school is an extension of the home. Each has an important job to do in developing the child. The school and the home do not perform different tasks but rather emphasize different phases of the total job. They cannot be separated. The two must coöperate if each is to meet its responsibilities. If there is one school program that cannot succeed without the close coöperation of both home and school, it is the home and family living program. When the school reaches out to help solve the problems in the home, those living in the home must be part of the planning body from the outset. It is one of the essentials of democracy that those who will be affected by what is done should have a hand in deciding what is to be done, if the desired results are to be realized. A program in home and family living cannot be imposed upon a community. If it is, it is doomed to failure at the start. The program should start at the grass roots, with the school offering the leadership either directly or indirectly.

There Is a Need to Locate and Harness Effective Leadership

Every community has leaders in various phases of community life, for leadership, simple or complex, arises at every level. The school should seek out these leaders. It is surprising how eager they are to help. These community leaders can influence those with whom they work far better than can the school or anyone connected with the school system. These leaders may be found anywhere in the community—in newspaper offices, service clubs, women's clubs, Parent-Teacher Associations, churches, physicians' clubs, labor organizations, veterans' organizations, community councils, neighborhood groups, industry, or business. Or they may not be members of any particular group, but their opinions are highly respected by a large segment of the community. It is the wise school official who knows who these people are.

An advisory council made up of such leaders, together with school officials, provides an excellent instrument for the school to use in planning a program in home and family living. The advisory council will stand as a bulwark against sniping at the program by highly vocal individuals or minority groups. It should act as an evaluating body and assist in developing a policy which will determine the direction and shape of the program.

The Contributions of Students Are Significant

Another powerful group in community life that many schools overlook is the students. They are the people who will be most affected by the home and family living program. They are ambassadors of either good or ill will from the school to the homes of the community. Programs of this kind will rise or fall, depending on the attitude of students toward them. The students should be interested in what is going on and should feel that it is meeting their needs. To secure their interest and devise a program that will satisfy their needs, it is important that their voices be heard in the planning stages.

Securing Faculty Support Is the First Step

Faculty members, other than those working directly with the home and family living program, should be kept informed as to its development. In fact, if a school system is to have an effective program, the faculty should not only be informed but, since this area of study cuts across the many fields of school work, they should be trained, through in-service study, to take an active part in carrying out the program. It is a job not for just a few but for all connected with the school system.

Leadership by the Board of Education Is All-Important

There is one official body in the community that must be thoroughly interested and informed and willing to support the home and family life program. That body is the board of educa-

tion. Not only must the superintendent of schools take it into his confidence in planning each step of the program, but the board should be active in helping to think through and plan various policies needed to support a program of this kind. The faculty, students, and parents can help the administrator and the board of education immeasurably if there is proper rapport among these groups. The family living curriculum is a community enterprise, and the board of education is the official educational authority of the community.

A Tradition of Coöperative Activities Is Helpful

How effective the school is in securing the coöperation of the home will depend upon the past relationship between the two. If the school has maintained an ivory-tower attitude toward the community, it will find it difficult to secure community coöperation. But if in the past the school, the home, and other community organizations and institutions have lived as one big happy family, each concerned about the others and always ready to offer assistance whenever needed, the task will be relatively easy. In other words, people and institutions are suspicious of the motives of those who change their attitudes too abruptly.

THE NEED FOR WIDESPREAD SUPPORT

In enlisting support for the program, we cannot stress too strongly that many individuals and groups, both in and out of school, must actively participate in it and that in the schools there is one of the greatest obstacle removers to such a program—the student. If the school meets the needs of students and parents, the program will eventually be accepted by these groups regardless of minor obstacles. The community will remove the obstacles, because once the people are convinced that the school has something vital and important to offer, they will support it in its efforts. The school cannot expect to do the job alone; it must have community support. If the people under-

stand the school's objectives, its purposes, and its aims, and if they understand that what is being done is for their good, their appreciation will be earnest and sincere and their support genuine.

A COÖPERATIVE COUNCIL ADVISES AND EVALUATES THE PROGRAM

The Advisory Council for home and family living education, mentioned previously, is an important phase of the Highland Park program. The council is made up of leaders in the community—mothers and fathers who sense the problems involved and who feel that the school, together with other community organizations, is trying to meet the needs of young boys and girls and their parents in developing better human relations. This council also includes school people. It meets often, sitting around a table and discussing the program and how it can do more adequately what needs to be done. It is an evaluating council as well as an advisory council. In many respects, it feels the pulse of the community better than school people. These parents hear other parents talk. They hear other parents' problems. They have their own problems. Therefore, they can give the school the layman's point of view and the community's reaction to what the school is doing.

THE PERSONALITY OF THE TEACHER IS IMPORTANT

One of the most important elements of the home and family living program is the staff personnel. Not everyone who teaches in a classroom can do this type of work. It takes a particular type of personality. Training is important, but the teacher's personality is more important. The kind of person the teacher really is is one of the basic factors. Teacher training institutions are becoming interested in developing courses in this field. Men and women are now preparing to become counselors, directors, and teachers in the field of human relations. However, if the administrator has an individual on his staff who is personable

and well adjusted socially, he can begin without waiting for the teacher training institution. Teachers who have faith in the program can pick up the essential knowledge from training on the job.

FINANCING THE PROGRAM IS NOT A SERIOUS HURDLE

Finance is not a great problem because the program can and should start in a small way. One or more persons on a staff who have the natural qualifications for this work can be the nucleus of the program. In the future, no doubt, more money will be available for this type of work because many institutions, such as churches, mental health societies, and civic organizations of various kinds, are becoming increasingly interested in this field of human relationship. Popular magazines and the radio carry much material on marriage, home and children, and mental health. There seems to be a rising tide of interest all over the nation that is encouraging more courses and greater enlightenment on the part of the general public regarding marriage, parenthood, and general home living. The country as a whole is realizing that the family is the foundation of democracy, and that, above all, the family and the home must be preserved. As the general public becomes enlightened, the field of home and family living, in both the schools and the community, will grow tremendously and take its rightful place in the lives of all.

THE NURSERY SCHOOL IS WHERE THE PROGRAM BEGINS

If the home and family living program is all-inclusive and truly reflects life, it should start with the nursery school and continue throughout the senior high-school program. To delay instruction until children reach the junior-senior high school is to neglect the most crucial years of child development. The child in the nursery school is forming more enduring habits and attitudes than students in the junior-senior high school. Furthermore, he is an important member of the home and the com-

munity in which he lives. There is no one year that the program should be taught; it should be available each year to all students in the public schools.

It should be the philosophy of the school that boys as well as girls have this training. There should be no double standard in a well-balanced, substantial home. There should be no double standard in modern society. If boys are given an opportunity to develop their latent interests and potential abilities in home and family life education, they will be as interested and as energetic as the girls are.

A weakness in some homemaking programs arises because many teachers in this field do not know how to teach boys. They have not been trained to teach boys. Especially, they have not been trained to teach boys the kind of content that is being discussed here.

The Highland Park Nursery School was started in December, 1924, in coöperation with the Merrill Palmer School of Detroit. To date, nearly 6012 students have had child care courses in which they have worked with, studied, and observed nursery-school children between the ages of 2½ and 5. Although this work in the nursery school is required only of girls, almost all the boys in the twelfth-grade sociology course elect the nursery-school laboratory work.

High-school students who come to the nursery school study child care theory in their classes and, in addition, have a handbook that they must read before they do any actual work with the children. This handbook outlines what they can expect of children, what attitudes are helpful in working with children, what methods of discipline to use, how to prevent discipline situations from arising, how and when to help children, what safety precautions to use, and what the needs of small children are as well as how to handle typical and specific situations. With this background of theory, together with the material in the handbook, the students can assume responsibility in the school under the guidance and supervision of the nursery-

school teacher. Two class periods are held daily for students on duty at the nursery school—one before the children arrive and one in the afternoon when the children are sleeping. Here actual problem situations that have occurred with the children are studied and discussed and proposed solutions are worked out. These solutions are tried later in individual and group situations.

LIBRARY FACILITIES ARE AVAILABLE TO STUDENTS

A library containing most of the recent books on child development and current magazines on child problems is available to the students. Here they can study children's problems and how best to deal with them. Student teachers who are studying these small children can also learn more about themselves and their own reactions, because they are helping children to solve problems similar to the ones they are trying to solve as adolescents.

For example, students may see a nursery-school child attempting to learn to consider group needs instead of being completely egocentric, to exercise self-control, to find something worth while that will make him feel important instead of showing off, to be patient and wait for his turn, to appreciate the other person's achievement, to work coöperatively instead of always wanting to be the leader, to avoid bizarre behavior as a means of gaining attention, to establish independence in other ways than through negativism, to face facts realistically without alibi, to respect other people's property and rights, to be a leader or follower as the situation demands, to work democratically for the good of a common cause, to achieve the satisfaction that comes from self-help and creative endeavor. The students may see the child gradually develop into a satisfying and pleasing person with the positive qualities of sweetness and sharing, helpfulness, coöperativeness, happiness, patience, calmness, constructiveness, vitality, spontaneity, intelligence, and eagerness. They may also help a child to acquire a pleasing

and more satisfying personality by overcoming such traits as negativism, overaggressiveness, temper tantrums, whining, sulkiness, rudeness, uncoöperativeness, and complete egocentricity. Through identification and by having solved the children's difficulties, the student teachers become more mature themselves and learn to overcome similar personality tendencies. As one of the senior boys once remarked, "When we are in nursery school, we can't act as childish as small children do."

STUDENTS ARE ACTIVE PARTICIPANTS IN THE PROGRAM

The Highland Park Elementary School includes the kindergarten through the eighth grade. Eighth-grade children are interested in the little folks in the kindergarten. They recall their own experiences there. The eighth-graders' autobiographies, especially under "earliest recollections," emphasize the importance of their training in the kindergarten and the relationship of the kindergarten teacher to them. Many eighth-grade students voluntarily visit the kindergarten to observe children and talk to the teacher.

Surveys in Highland Park revealed that a large percentage of eighth-grade pupils act as baby sitters in the evenings and on week ends. With these observations and facts in mind, the staff was convinced that there was a great need to offer some study of child growth and development through the curriculum in homemaking. The course now offered to the girls includes food buying, its preparation and serving, and making clothing; for boys, general shop; and for both, home decorations and improvement. It was also felt that these eighth-grade students, both boys and girls, should have direct contact with the children in the kindergarten under the supervision of the staff.

In planning this program for child growth and development, the counselor in home and family living, the eighth-grade home room teacher, the kindergarten teacher, the principal, the director of adult education, the chairman of the homemaking de-

partment of the school system, and the teacher of the home-making courses in the elementary school all worked together. They agreed that a desirable objective was to develop in older pupils a better understanding of young children and how they grow up, so that they will be able to deal with them more intelligently and effectively, and by understanding the younger children be better prepared to understand themselves.

Eighth-Grade Students Visit the Kindergarten

To accomplish these objectives, the eighth-grader needs to develop (1) an appreciation of the training a child receives during his first five years of life; (2) a knowledge of the behavior that is normally expected from a four-year-old or a five-year-old; (3) an awareness of the approach the older person should use in working with or guiding youngsters; and (4) skill in working with young children.

Regular class sessions should be held at the beginning of each year to study and discuss these problems. Eighth-grade students may be assigned to the kindergarten in pairs. As the program gathers momentum, inquiry about child behavior inevitably suggests a question box. This in turn calls for a weekly discussion period involving the class, the home-room teacher, the kindergarten teacher, and the homemaking teacher. The typical questions below illustrate the insight shown by the eighth-grade children.

"Lucile is afraid of the rabbit. How shall we help her get over this fear?"

"Harry sucks his thumb during rest period. Should we say something to him about this? Why does he suck his thumb?"

"Jane seems afraid of other children. Why does she act this way?"

"Tommy sits and watches while the other children dance. Why doesn't Tommy dance, too? Why don't we make him dance?"

"What shall we do when children fight?"

"How can we help children relax during rest time?"

"The little new boy cried and kicked when his mother left. You didn't seem to notice it."

Eighth-Grade Students Are Given Experience in Evaluating Emotional Behavior

During the discussion period with these eighth-grade students, another process soon becomes obvious to the teacher. As the pupils analyze the fears, temper tantrums, emotional immaturity, nail biting, thumb sucking, restlessness, stubbornness, and other aspects of kindergarten behavior, they are also analyzing themselves. Their study and discussion of the little people's behavior gradually expand into a study and discussion of growing up as well as of grown-up people's behavior. As young life gains in meaning to them, all life gains in meaning.

Ninth-Grade Students Are Enrolled in Homemaking

As was stated before, all 9B girls must take at least one semester of homemaking. Girls are given experience in the field of food, including planning, budgeting, marketing, preparing, serving, and evaluating. They also explore the clothing field, including the selection and making of garments suitable to the individual. They learn all phases of home care by assuming actual responsibility for the care of the apartment and its furnishings and equipment. In coöperation with the program in the home management house for 9B girls, a course in personality development is taken by 9B boys and girls. This class meets once a week. In it an attempt is made to teach students how to become mature persons. The classes are segregated to allow free discussion of matters which are personal to students at this age. Since students at the ninth-grade level are striving more and more for social ease, group acceptance, and personal success, everything pertaining to self-confidence, correct and attractive appearance, and social manners begins to assume great importance.

As part of the evaluation of the course, the students rated the items that were most helpful and most important to them in this order: reproduction, what boys think of girls, what girls

think of boys, boy-girl relationships, menstruation, sex introduction, grooming, how to get along with people, posture, clothes, dates, personal appearance, family problems, physical and mental care of self, maturing personally, and so on down through the list of items such as ideal home, diet, how to act when out on a date, securing recognition, how to walk, and when to get home at night. This class on personality development is an excellent supplement to the regular 9B homemaking program.

TWELFTH-GRADE STUDENTS STUDY HOMEMAKING AND HEALTH

Another course offered in the twelfth grade is taught by the home economics teacher, the school nurse, and the school physician. This course is divided into six units: community health, individual health, progress in the field of health, health professions, home nursing skills, and family health. The course is taught as much as possible on the laboratory plan with many field trips.

Offering education for marriage and family living is an obligation the school has to the community. Highland Park has tried to meet this responsibility by giving a course on home and family living, in preparation for marriage, which is required of all twelfth-grade boys and girls. This course attempts education that will lead to the establishment of the kind of home conducive to wholesome family living.

Unit One Deals with Basic Needs

Because it is believed that the best preparation for marriage is the building of a well-balanced, emotionally mature person, the first unit studied in the home and family living program is one on mental health. Mental hygiene principles are implicit in all the units that follow.

In this unit the students study the four basic needs common to every human being—the need for security, recognition, love, and new experience—and the effects on personality as these

needs are satisfied socially or antisocially. Alternate ways of meeting problems are considered. These include facing problems realistically, sublimating, or retreating by means of side-stepping devices. Among these neurotic evasions the class considers daydreaming, invalidism, lying and rationalization, vicarious living, alcoholism, etc. Considerable time is spent on alcoholism for two reasons: because of the alarming increase in the number of alcoholics, particularly among women, and the devastating effect of alcohol on the individual and his family; and because the subject brings out the predisposing causes of alcoholism, the effects of pampering, rejecting, or dominating parental attitudes on the future personality of the child. It is pointed out that as the drinking pattern changes, the person may slip over the line of social drinking to the compulsive stage where it becomes an obsession. The presentation never involves an emotional appeal or a moral approach but attempts to give young people scientific knowledge about a disease that now ranks fourth as a public health problem.

Emotional Maturity Is a Goal

Emotional maturity is presented as a goal that pays the highest dividends and can be used as a yardstick to measure individual growth. Many traits of maturity are considered. Also are noted the common infantile carry-overs that should have been discarded in childhood and the unhappiness that results from them in the life of the individual and his family.

Normal Sexual Development Stages Are Studied

A study is made of the normal development of the affections from egocentric infancy to maturity. The final stage is achievement of the ability to love maturely. The effects on the personality of a person who is retarded in any one of these stages are also brought out.

There Are Certain Forces That Mold the Personality

Consideration is given to the achieving of inner equilibrium by an understanding of the two forces continually acting upon the individual: (1) the instinctual impulses or tensions that result from normal body processes—hunger, aggression, the sex drive—and (2) the mores that are handed down to us and represent the experience of the race. Both of these forces are good in themselves, but personality damage results if either exerts too much pressure or is too repressed; this also is studied. Examples from everyday living show how character building is the outgrowth of gradually taking into the personality structure the social disciplines that make civilized living possible.

A Self-Analysis Is Made by Students

At the end of this unit each student writes an analysis of his feelings and philosophies, and judges his degree of maturity. The emphasis is never on morbid introspection but on healthy self-analysis. It is hoped that the student will gain insight into any problems he may have. Time has been set aside in the teacher's schedule for counseling with the students after she has read the self-analyses. Serious emotional maladjustments are referred to a specialist.

Unit Two Is Child Development

The second unit deals with the growth and development of the child. The students are the parents of the future; hence they should obtain a basic understanding of the needs of infants if they are to rear secure, well-adjusted children. They learn that the child's personality pattern is molded by his early experiences. The love and comfort he receives remain with him; the mother's pleasure in her role of motherhood is reflected in her care of the child. Security in childhood tends to enrich the personality and to help the child grow into the kind of

adult who, because he is secure and has grown up with a sense of belonging and adequacy, is affectionate, trusting, generous, enthusiastic, and capable of working to his best capacities. A child who is reared in this type of environment develops the will to please and the will to endure the necessary tensions and frustrations that come from learning the many "don'ts" in our culture.

Children of this age group need to recognize also the opposite picture: that failure to satisfy the physical and emotional needs of the infant, the withholding of comfort and love, develop antagonism and resistant behavior. Frustrated in his attempts to satisfy his needs, the child learns to expect failure. Hostility may develop toward his mother and his family and eventually he may wish to punish all society. Emotional impoverishment may result. This is characterized by inexpressiveness, indifference—the most baffling attitude to cope with—and apparent intellectual retardation, or by overaggressiveness. Students need to realize that an individual pays too high a price for the security he gains by means of withdrawal or aggression.

Important Childhood Traits Are Discussed Here

Consideration is given to the significance of the child's position in the family—whether he is the oldest, the youngest, or an only child. Factors such as competition with an older or younger child for a parent's affection are discussed. It is pointed out that the feelings and opinions a child has about himself influence his future attitudes and actions, for he is developing the ability to "take it" as opportunities arise to make decisions and abide by their results.

Two important considerations of the childhood stage are: (1) that the ground work is being laid for most of the essential personality traits, and (2) that none of the difficulties of the childhood years, such as temper tantrums, bizarre behavior, or extremes of any kind, would be significant or important if they were discarded at the childhood level. The serious

hazard lies in the fact that infantile traits may be carried from level to level of development, thus making more difficult the adaptations and adjustments necessary as the individual meets adult situations. In adulthood he not only will have to face the new problems always inherent in the next step upward but he also will carry with him all the old unsolved problems.

ADOLESCENTS ARE STUDIED NEXT

A study of the adolescent and his world follows, with many discussions of rights, privileges, and responsibilities in the home and in society. The social scene is viewed and many opinions offered on how to get a date, manners, time to come home, necking and petting, ingenuity in providing wholesome fun, and the attitudes of parents toward these matters. Other topics are also discussed. They include the use or misuse of money, going "steady," making friends, school grades, how to study, and any topic that may be suggested as a result of the students' assigned reading or general interest.

"Am I Ready for Marriage?" Is a Question That Is Asked

Next to be considered is the more serious dating leading to the engagement period. The question is asked, "Am I ready for marriage?" Then an attempt is made to discover whether or not the student has the emotional maturity essential for a good marriage. The next question for discussion and study is "Whom shall I marry?" This includes study of the factors involved in differences in age or in deep-seated convictions as to what warrants struggle and sacrifice. "Have I carefully analyzed my reason for marriage? Is it mature love, cultural pressures, security, social pressures, fear of loneliness, or a means of escape?"

The Engagement Period Is Studied

The engagement period itself is studied. The purpose of an engagement—i.e., a learning period which provides time to

plan and to anticipate the possible conflicts that may arise in the future—is discussed with enthusiasm. There are discussions about the hazards of the too-short as well as the too-long engagement. The psychological and physical risks of premarital sex relationships are seriously considered. Finally the class discusses the responsibility of each partner in making love. At this stage in the course a man teacher works with the boys for two days and a woman teacher works with the girls.

No Special Unit on Sex Hygiene Is Offered

It is unfortunate that the terms “family life education” and “sex hygiene” have become synonymous for too many people. Good sex education should include the factors that produce sound personality development. If the child’s basic needs have not been wholesomely satisfied, he may become so dependent on affection that he develops a driving need to attain it; casual sex gratification may result, or feelings of insecurity may make him value the pleasure of the moment rather than take a wholesome long-term view. Seniors can understand the adjustments required between instinctual sex tensions and the necessities of civilization. They can understand the frustrations that result from promiscuous sex gratification because it does not satisfy their real personality needs. No special unit on sex hygiene is needed. The classroom with the right teacher is an ideal place to learn about these and other problems in the area of sex as they normally arise during the course.

Adjustments in Marriage Are Discussed

Common adjustments that must be made during the first years of marriage are discussed next. Students draw on their outside reading and on their own observations. Good adjustment to marriage and to each other is stressed as an essential prelude to good parenthood. Emotional tensions in the home are contagious and keenly felt by the child; and they result in

feelings of insecurity and apprehension that become a basic part of the personality pattern.

Monogamy Is Given Attention in the Program

A brief survey is made of the evolution of the family in order to answer the query, "Why do we have monogamy?" The objective is to help the student understand that other forms of marriage have been tried and discarded and that monogamy is the result of the experience of the race in its quest for fulfillment and happiness.

The Emancipation of Women Receives Special Consideration

In conjunction with the study of the evolution of the family, the emancipation of women is traced from chattel slavery to their equal partnership in modern marriage as found in America. Emphasis is given to the importance of women preserving their feminine role and upholding high moral standards.

The Foundation for Successful Family Life Is Studied

The family today is less an economic institution and more an organization for affectionate companionship. Successful family living is based upon understanding, coöperation, and mutual respect. This coöperation depends upon good adjustments on the part of all its members.

A Study of the Family in Transition Is Emphasized

The family is still in a state of transition from the patriarchal authoritative type to a modern democratic type. The resulting uncertainties combined with many social maladjustments account in part for the mounting divorce rate. The class studies the various economic, social, and personal causes of a divorce, as well as the possible remedial measures. The serious effects of a broken home on child development, as well as the disorganizing effect on the individual, are pointed out. Class discussions

bring out the point of view that some divorces are necessary. However, students emphasize the fact that what is needed is better preparation for marriage.

Various Teaching Methods and Procedures Are Used

Teaching methods are diversified according to subject matter. Informal lectures with stories and examples seem to be the most effective way of covering the early background units, because time is at a premium. Much outside reading, based on suggested books and magazine articles, accompanies each unit. Each student reports in class on his reading and conducts the discussion that follows.

Bringing In the Parents Is Effective in the Program

Parents' meetings organized for the purpose of discussing the everyday problems of adolescents have proved beneficial. Students anonymously report causes of conflict in the home and suggest topics they would like discussed. The teacher needs to do little at these meetings, for the discussion usually becomes quite general. The parents' viewpoints can then be interpreted to the class the next day. There is at least one meeting for the parents of each class during the semester. The complexity of some of the problems that are brought to the instructors in these courses by both parents and students is often amazing. The problems show clearly that people's lives are like icebergs—two-thirds are submerged below the surface.

JUNIOR COLLEGE PSYCHOLOGY IS A POPULAR OFFERING

In the junior college a course listed under psychology is offered; it deals with the engagement period, marriage, and parent education. Some of the students in this class are already married, some have children of their own, and others are engaged; of course, many are vitally interested.

It might appear that there is a great deal of duplication of courses. However, this is not a problem, because all the people

who teach these courses work very closely together in developing the material. Naturally, the courses are geared to the level of maturity of the student. The home-room program prevails throughout the school system, so the student may bring some of these problems to his home-room, problems that he would like to discuss with the teacher or the home-room group. The program requires the meeting of many minds. It is necessary for the homemaking teacher, the school nurse, the school doctor, the counselor, the director of adult education, the home and family living counselor, the chairman of the department of home economics, and all the other teachers to work very closely together in developing the program of home living.

The program in home and family life is an ever-changing, ever-expanding one; a number of plans and projects are constantly being discussed and incorporated in the general school program.

Is the Junior Psychology Course Meeting a Real Need?

The underlying theme of the course is happy and effective adjustments in family living, but it attempts to go further in building successful living. Many of the philosophies presented by the modern world in some movies and "realistic" novels, and the standards of conduct in present-day social procedures are confusing to the adolescent. The course tries, by consideration of basic convictions, to teach wise discrimination between the plausible and smooth-sounding philosophies and those that will insure happiness and successful living in the complex world of today. It is a subject in which the intangibles that accompany subject matter play a most vital part. An evaluation of the course has shown that it has been extremely successful and is meeting a real need for both students and parents alike (12).

CLASSES FOR PARENTS ARE POPULAR

The philosophy upon which the home and family living program is based considers not only students in the schools but

parents in the home as well. Here the director of adult education, working closely with the home and family living counselor, the principals, and the teachers, plays an important part in setting up classes in child development for parents of children in both the elementary and high schools. During the year each elementary school in the system holds meetings representing different age groups of children. Approximately eighteen parent meetings are scheduled regularly in each school. In these meetings the school psychologist and psychiatrist, counselors, principals, and teachers discuss with the parents the fields of mental health and child development. Here parents bring their problems—problems that are confusing them, problems that they face daily in attempting to rear their children. Often experts from universities and nearby colleges and other organizations are called in to discuss such problems with parents.

Courses are set up for the parents so that there is continuity of the material covered. A survey of parents attending these classes showed that 95 percent of them were well satisfied with the courses and wished to have the program expanded.

Not all these courses deal entirely with child-parent relationships; some involve other problems in homemaking. For example, a class in interior decorating was held in the studio of a local interior decorator, taught by him, and supervised by the director of adult education and the chairman of the homemaking department. Classes in wallpaper hanging, flower arrangement, jewelry making, ceramics, textiles, and upholstering, to mention a few, are conducted under the supervision of the adult education department and the chairman of the homemaking department.

These parent meetings are a very important part of the home and family living program, for in them parents may study certain general projects relative to home living or discuss with the school personnel the growth and development problems of their children.

Since the homemaking laboratories in the elementary schools are as well equipped as those in the high school and junior college, they provide excellent centers for these neighborhood parent group meetings.

EACH ADMINISTRATOR HAS A KEY POSITION

The superintendent occupies the key position in developing a home and family life program. He must be keenly aware of the need for such work in the school and the community. He will not sense this need unless he has a philosophy of life and education that will support a program dealing with all aspects of a person's living. He must have a philosophy that holds the individual more important than the system, a philosophy that is flexible and dynamic enough to meet the changing needs of the time.

The stolid, mechanical type of administrator will have trouble with the home and family living program even if he can succeed in getting one started. The successful administrator must know how to work with people and to respect their ideas. He must be able to "take it" if his own ideas are overruled by people working with him. He must be able to give his colleagues freedom of operation. He must welcome ideas from others. When a pattern of operation has once been agreed upon, he should support it to the limits of his ability. It is imperative that he create an emotional climate that will permit his associates to be creative and therefore to do their best work.

Next to the superintendent, the principal of the school has the most important position in formulating a home and family living program. It is he who must put the program into effect through scheduling, working directly with teachers, parents, and students. In administering a program of this kind, some of the well-established routines and theories may have to be shelved. The mechanically-minded principal will have difficulty doing this. He may feel at times that he is "flying blind"

and charting unknown places. But if he sees the school program in its broader aspects and is acutely aware of the students' great need for training in home and family living, he will move forward with his staff, the students, and the parents in a common effort, knowing that his school is meeting a real need.

DYNAMIC LEADERSHIP IS NEEDED FOR EFFECTIVE RESULTS

Most administrators know how to do their work better, but somehow, somewhere, something gets in the way of accomplishment. Someone has said that men's minds are filled with "inert ideas." The difference between an inert idea and a dynamic one is that the dynamic idea results in action and the inert idea does not. Many administrators and teachers never get beyond the discussion stage. Ideas without implementation to put them to work are worthless. It is only when an idea begins to function that it becomes worth while to the institution. It is the administrator's responsibility to see that the idea has an opportunity to go to work. In other words, he must help put it to work.

The type of program that has been described here is not something that can remain static if it is to be effective. It is a constantly growing, changing, and evolving program as it strives to meet better the ever-changing needs of those with whom it is concerned.

QUESTIONS

1. What are some of the major social problems that may be attributed to a lack of home and family education in our schools?
2. What is the role of the administrator in developing a program of education for home and family living? The board of education? The counselor? The classroom teacher?
3. What should be the approach in dealing with sex education in the school program?
4. What are the characteristics of a mature person? What happens in a person's early training to make him mature or immature as an adult?
5. What is the function of a home and family living education council in a school system? Who should serve on this council?

6. What are the appropriate responsibilities of colleges, universities, and state departments of education in developing community programs in home and family living education?

PROBLEM

Write a one-paragraph statement of the philosophy of education on which a functional program in home and family living education should be based. How may the school secure the coöperation of the home and community? Outline a program in family life education for a school system with 10,000 students in a city with a population of 75,000.

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XI

Evaluation as a Technique of Democratic Administration

Too frequently, evaluation has been considered as a theoretical rather than a practical phase of democratic living. This apparent dichotomy has created much confusion in thinking about the role of evaluation in democratic organization. It is proposed here that evaluation is an extremely important practical application of democratic administration, essential to the process and continuous within the framework.

What does participation in groups do to individuals? To work with others on problems of mutual concern is more than a congeries of separate experiences. Association in a group involves the composite rather than the aggregate. Individuals and groups change because of the stimulation of interaction, individual to individual and group to group. Some men in the field of group dynamics suggest that the spiritual affinity of persons in a group is an emotional quality that defies description by traditional methods of measurement. Others believe that it is merely a manifestation of the adage that many minds are superior to one. Still others hold that the individual loses his feeling of individuality and becomes submerged in the

group, which has a unique character of its own. At any rate, it seems reasonable to assume (1) that men change when they become members of a problem-solving group, (2) that this change can and should be measured continuously, and (3) that this measurement, which records the atmosphere and attitude of the group, is evaluative in nature.

Education has produced many clichés, catchwords, and ideas that cover a multitude of sins. We attempt to pack the wisdom of a thousand sages into one word or idea, thereby severing it from whatever natural root it belongs to. We continually do this with evaluation.

Evaluation is not a distinct entity apart from the group problem-solving process. It is not a test or measuring stick applied to the finished product that tells how far we have gone but has little regard for direction. It is not a mark, a grade, a level of achievement—but without depth concerning the total process of planning and working together. It is not a requiem at the end. It is not meaningful only as related to the completed project. Evaluation is a dynamic concept. Basically, group thinking is an evaluation process in itself. It is essential to the growth of both the individual and the group. Evaluation is effective only insofar as its role is continuous examination, both personal and group, of the process, project, and participants. Only through this continuous medium can we see where we are at present in relation to immediate and ultimate objectives. Evaluation is not merely a measurement of the past. Rather, it is an expanding yardstick which should always give measurement and analysis in terms of the future and always result in improvement. With this medium it should be possible to measure change in both the individual and the group, in addition to analyzing the situation for potential group development. Groups succeed because of the compulsion to progress arising from viewing what they have done in terms of what they want to do. It is construction, not destruction, and it provides a key for the group process.

FLEXIBLE GUIDEPOSTS CAN POINT UP EFFECTIVE EVALUATION

Like any other coöperative process, evaluation must operate on the basis of flexible tenets. The following are a few guideposts which seem significant to the process of evaluating any activity:

1. It must be expressed in terms of the effects produced.
2. It must consider the relationships established between members of the group.
3. It must point the way toward improved human relationships.
4. It must show the need for improvement.
5. It must be flexible in terms of the group involved.
6. It must be specific in terms of the problem involved.
7. It must consider the physical setting of the group.
8. It must provide direct results.
9. It must be objective and accurate.
10. It must be critical only in terms of improvement.
11. It must be coöperatively planned and executed.
12. It must be a learning experience, with transfer to other activities in which the participant is involved.
13. It must be part of the everyday program of a group, not a special occasion activity.
14. It must be effective in terms of purpose.
15. It must not be stacked to present a particular view.

Evaluation of democratic administration involves three major offensive prongs, namely, introspective evaluation by the individual participants, group evaluation of the project, and individual or group evaluation of the process. All are necessary to a clear understanding of group effectiveness. Each must be continuous. When centered in the total democratic framework, these three aspects of evaluation produce an understanding essential to growth. We must also consider that evaluation involves the following steps:

1. Planning.
2. Initiation of the plan.

3. Action on the plan.
4. Classification and analysis of data.
5. Replanning.

A cooperative plan of evaluation involves the following steps:

1. Determining the purposes of evaluation based on the objectives of the project.
2. Searching for all possible sources of data that can shed light on the project, participant, and process.
3. Presenting all pertinent data to the group.
4. Critically analyzing the data by individual and group methods.
5. Validating the data compiled.
6. Acting on the validated results in terms of an improved program.

We also ought to consider, in this general discussion of evaluation, difficulties which impede it. Look first at the individual who is essentially the key to the process. The individual is beset by many pitfalls—inability to see himself in terms of a distinct role in the group, refusal to be truthful and objective, desire to be a “pollyanna,” defensive role with respect to personal ideas, fear of self-analysis, difficulty in becoming specific, conflict between personal and group values, difficulty in giving up his own ideas to those of the group. These are actually only a few of the pitfalls, but they help us to realize the intense complexity of the individual’s role in a democratic administrative group. The degree to which a participant can see himself both as an individual and as an individual in a cooperative process determines the evaluation quotient of any group. The participant must never lose his identity in a group, but he must realize that his role as an individual is unique and as such must contribute to the total group product. This total group product cannot be identified with any individual participant.

There are difficulties resulting from the group setting which make evaluation puzzling. It seems that when individuals convene in a problem-solving group, they lose their ability to

think specifically and hence think in terms of universal patterns, clichés, stereotypes, and generalities. Groups become lost in broad generalizations; they overlook the specifics of individual relationships and associations which actually determine whether the coöperative process will work efficiently. Evaluation of democratic administrative techniques involves profound personal and group responsibility for honesty and objectivity. Another impediment is the fact that the group result sometimes is based on faulty inferences due to the dominance or submission of some of its members. Different individuals never honestly make the same inferences from the same set of facts. This causes confusion, because the viewpoint of the dominant participant may set the patterns of thinking and acting. Other difficulties result from the approach. A faulty approach presages failure for the evaluative process. It gives a score—a mark—a level—of achievement without regard for the total picture.

It can be deduced that impediments to the evaluative process arise principally because human beings operate within a coöperative framework without being ready for such participation. Since we view the group as the matrix within which the individual reacts—and this on the basis of his unique mental and emotional characteristics varying according to experience and ability—it is necessary for the individual to examine his personal attitudes and feelings. Thus we consider the first major offensive prong of evaluation—self-evaluation.

Subjective and Personal Evaluations Are Important

Certainly an important part of personal evaluation is concerned with the feelings and ideas which go unexpressed. In view of this fact, both introspection and observation of oneself by others are necessary. Introspection must be based on the principle of self-acceptance—acknowledgment of one's role as a human being with significant membership in a group. The individual must first accept himself as a human being having

intrinsic human worth. This acceptance must then permeate all human relationships which that individual manifests. Individual evaluation of democratic administration must also be made in terms of the role the individual assigns to himself in a group. Through introspection and empathy he must measure effects produced in other participants based on his own drives, desires, emotions, and motivations. He must make whatever contributions he can to further the action of his group. Whatever analysis of himself he makes must be objective as reported but subjective in nature. His behavior must point toward improvement rather than condemnation. After he has "searched his soul," he must be observed in terms of his behavior regarding professed values. His attitude toward the coöperative process as well as specific school planning must be determined on the basis of performance. Acceptance of responsibility should be measured by group observation without regard for the individual's status. Professional development should be considered insofar as it enhances his unique contribution to the coöperative process. Evaluation must involve the individual's total being—even to the point of conscious and unconscious reaction.

Objective Evaluation Is Necessary

People cannot be changed except when the change takes place within a predetermined framework. A situation can be established within which change will occur. This situation in the democratic school is coöperative planning. However, even in this situation, initiative for change must come from the participant. This framework is generally found in the projects which the group undertakes. Evaluation would be incomplete if it did not consider the results of these projects. They must be analyzed by both participants and outside observers. Many devices including the following are available for the job: check lists, group records, individual records, mechanically recorded records, individual and group rating devices for human

understanding, interviews with participants and observers, school rating scales, project inventories, information blanks on participants, group conferences with observers, research publications resulting from projects, classroom observations, observations of teacher-teacher and teacher-administrator relationships, and questionnaires. All these devices should help to clarify the relationship between the behavior of participants and the achievement of group-conceived project goals.

Continuous Evaluation of Process Is Essential

The third phase of evaluation involves continuous examination of the process as it is experienced. This too must be carried on by both participants and observers. It must be attacked by introspection and observation, both of which must be consistent with democratic principles. We must never lose sight of the fact that evaluation considers what a group has co-operatively decided it can and should do. To examine a group's progress in terms of process facilitates good human relationships.

HOW DID NORTHRUP SCHOOL ATTACK EVALUATION?

One school developed a program of coöperative planning in 1949, for the first time in its history. Careful records were maintained throughout the year. Toward the end of the school year, the faculty thought it best to take stock of their accomplishments. Various evaluative materials were distributed, individual and group observations were made, observers analyzed materials, and questionnaires were distributed and the results studied. The school faculty really wanted to see itself as others see it—as well as introspectively to evaluate itself. The results were amazing, but certainly not unexpected. The complete record of this school follows, exactly as it was prepared after a year's work:

Inherent in any coöperative way of working is the process of evaluation. Certainly coöperative planning is evaluative of itself. We must know

where we presently are in relation to our point of origin and our ultimate objectives. One way to determine the status of a group is through personal self-evaluation by its individual members. Another device is through group evaluation of process and project. At Northrup School, we have attempted to use both attacks. These materials are the result of our evaluation endeavor.

Initially each teacher received and completed the form questionnaire "Self-Evaluation." This questionnaire was devised by a school committee to determine the extent to which coöperative planning had succeeded at Northrup School. The results of this material were synthesized and classified. This classification appears in the paper, "Northrup Looks in the Mirror." The faculty studied critically the materials in this paper for two weeks.

After this study period, a series of discussion meetings were held to develop the materials more fully. The results of the first meeting were recorded in the second paper, "A Second Critical Peek." The next meeting was reported in "Our Third Group Evaluation." Each is an enlargement of the preceding paper. Each helps us to see more clearly the total picture involved in coöperative planning.

After our final discussions regarding the evaluation, an Action Committee was established by the faculty to give directions for the future. This group used for resources the three evaluation papers.

Self-Evaluation Is Attempted

Evaluation is an extremely important phase of any program involving coöperative planning. It is the basis for future planning. We ought to be concerned as to the value of our committee organization, the effectiveness of this system, the flexibility of planning groups. The purpose of this form is to help us find out what course our coöperative planning has taken thus far; how we can improve the situation; what factors, both personal and otherwise, are blocking our progress; and what innovations are necessary to improve our program next year.

The specific results of this survey will not be circulated. Roy, the principal, will be the only person to see the original evaluation forms. He will generalize the material and present these generalizations to the entire faculty. The material will be handled in this manner because of the following reasons:

1. Effectiveness of this type of evaluation depends entirely on the honesty of participating members.
2. We are more inclined to state our frank belief if we know that our statements won't be the object of widespread discussion.
3. We are interested in general blocks to coöperative working based on specific objectives.

After you write your evaluation, seal it in an envelope and put it in the box located in the office. Let's make the deadline Friday, March 4.

1. Name of your committee
2. Number of people on your committee
3. Number and types of projects your committee has undertaken
4. Do you feel that your committee has been effective?
5. Do you believe that these projects have been worth while? Check and explain.
Yes No Why?
6. What "Blocks" have impeded discussion in your group?
7. Have the same "Blocks" which impeded good discussion been the cause of an ineffective working group?
8. What is your honest opinion of the committee procedure? (Give your opinion of the process itself rather than the way the process is functioning today.)
9. What suggestions can you offer toward the improvement of our committee procedure?
10. Can you suggest any other process for solving our school problems coöperatively?
11. Comment on any question(s) that has been omitted in this opinionnaire.

Use separate sheet if you so desire.

Northrup Looks in the Mirror

What happens to individuals in a group? Certainly the process for combining their talents, experiences, and backgrounds in a group situation is not arithmetic in nature. The group changes from the stimulation of each interacting with the other. Some men in the field of group relations con-

tend that the union of men in a group is a spiritual association. Others maintain that it's merely a practice of the old idea, "Two heads are better than one." Still others maintain that a man loses his identity and becomes melted into a group which has an identity of its own. Whatever is the theoretical consensus, many of us have come to believe that group problem-solving is a necessary manifestation of the democratic way of life—that people are interested in decisions which affect them—that they will participate if the opportunity is presented—that they will assume responsibility for the consequence of their own actions. We learn democracy by living it.

We have embarked on a venture in coöperative problem-solving at Northrup School. The problems we have attacked have been simple—the solutions relatively easy—but we have learned more than solutions to a few problems. We have developed a process keyed to coöperation—a way of working. Most of us have believed this way of working superior to other procedures. However, we're never quite sure of how well an organization is working unless we constantly evaluate our work in terms of processes and objectives. As a group, we recognized this need and responded with an evaluation of our entire range of activities.

An excellent spirit of evaluation permeated all reports returned. Out of a possible 32 evaluations, 30 were received. All of them were honest, sincere reports of what the individual believed we were doing in relation to both objectives and processes. Studying this material has provided great inspiration and faith in our faculty which has struggled to make democracy work. We have a long way to go but the initial seed has been planted. Nourishment will come from a keen appreciation of objectives and a broadened understanding of process by you and me in our daily coöperative ventures.

Classification of the original evaluation returns resulted in the following major areas for study:

1. Analysis of Committee System for Problem-Solving
 - a. Responsibilities of each committee
 - b. Projects undertaken
 - c. Value of the work of each committee
 - d. Success of committee projects
2. Evaluation of the Group Process
 - a. Positive comments
 - b. Negative comments
3. Recommendations for the Future
4. General Conclusions

Much of the material overlaps several areas. Some of it is rather general. Its value comes from the fact that we determined to look at ourselves in the light of an improved program. Whatever ideas are included in this report were written by one or more teachers in the individual reports. The sanctity of your ideas has not been violated in any way.

The Planning Committee has determined the following plan of action concerning these materials:

1. Study the materials and record any omissions or additions before next Tuesday.
2. Tuesday, May 17—our first meeting of the entire staff to discuss the contents of the material and implications for the future program.
3. Discussion of the material in committee groups to determine program for next year.
4. Final general meeting to determine outline of organization for next year.

Read these materials carefully—and critically. Remember, this is what we have said about ourselves; this is the looking-glass approach.

At the present time, our organization includes four operating committees: Planning Committee, Curriculum Committee, Teacher Affairs Committee, and Community Relations Committee. An original group, the Exploratory Committee, was dissolved after setting up the working organization.

Objectives for each of the committees were the following:

1. Planning Committee
 - To coordinate the work of all committees
 - To maintain balance between teachers, parents, and children
 - To help determine policy in our school
2. Curriculum Committee
 - To study what we are doing in relation to other schools
 - To study our present schedule
 - To study the problems of flexible groupings
 - To determine ways in which we can gear our curriculum to community needs
 - To evaluate all records which make children better known to us
 - To discover physical equipment which would improve our teaching
 - To keep faculty informed on changes in educational practice
 - To provide intra-faculty exchange of curriculum ideas
3. Teacher Affairs Committee
 - To keep staff aware of professional developments
 - To keep staff informed as to the latest educational publications including magazines, books, monographs, and pamphlets
 - To keep staff aware of educational experimentation currently being developed
 - To bring in outside consultants who can help us with our work
 - To carry on public relations within the system as representatives of our school
 - To function as a social committee for the school staff
 - To function as Flower Fund Committee
 - To take interest in all things that would benefit our school
4. Community Relations Committee
 - To cooperate closely with the P.T.A.

- To interpret our school intelligently for the public
- To provide for public evaluation of our school program
- To coöperate with community groups other than the P.T.A.
- To determine through survey our community needs
- To catalogue community resources including persons of interest who could contribute to our school program
- To publish materials with regard to school activities

The projects undertaken by each of these groups have been many and varied. The consensus seems to be that all were needed. All were helpful to our school. All were relatively simple problems with positive solutions. None required intensive study, research, and evaluation. For our first year, the strength of our system appears to lie in the attacking of problems for which we could find answers. The following projects were undertaken in the committee listed:

1. Exploratory Committee
 - Setting up a committee organization
 - Initial planning for putting system in operation
2. Planning Committee
 - Coördinating activities of all committees
 - Long-range planning for the school
 - Maintaining harmonious relationships among all members
 - Evaluating committee activities
3. Curriculum Committee
 - Curriculum recording study
 - Schedule planning
 - Pupil questionnaire on curriculum
4. Teacher Affairs Committee
 - Halloween Party
 - Christmas Party
 - Shower Party
 - Flower Fund
 - Bulletin articles
 - Suggested program for passing of classes
 - Suggested seating arrangement in gymnasium
 - Reports on professional articles
5. Community Relations Committee
 - Development of harmonious relationship between parent-teacher-child in all school affairs
 - Negro History Week Celebration
 - Symposium for National Education Week on "School Program"
 - Brotherhood Week Celebration
 - Ann Visger Exchange Program
 - Community Bulletin

Many comments were submitted which would generally suggest the value of our various projects. In order to include the pure connotation of these comments, many are transmitted to you verbatim. Others have been

combined and generalized to give clarity. The following statements point out the value of our projects:

1. Working together on projects has improved the conditions of work for both pupil and teacher. General school morale has been raised. As teacher morale rises, children receive greater help. The children certainly have benefited.
2. We have gained two great values from our projects—a knowledge of how to work together and a direct voice in the administration. We now feel a responsibility for participation in getting our job done. We are having a voice in problems previously considered administrative.
3. A knowledge and understanding of the entire school has been brought to all. Teachers have gotten to learn what each is doing. Just thinking about school problems together has helped us clarify our own classroom objectives.
4. We have cemented community relations through an extension of our base of understanding with the community. We have actually gained experience in community living. We have let the public in on our activities—first hand—and because of this, in part, we have realized acceptance by the community.
5. We have learned to respect the other fellow as important because he is a human being. We have learned to defend each teacher's right to voice an idea.

In addition to the listing of suggested values, we ought to mention ideas which indicate the success of various projects. Actually, to distinguish between success and value is like measuring invisible objects. Since every paper suggested that the projects were successful, the following substantiating reasons were submitted:

1. The projects gave an excellent over-all picture of our school and, at the same time, developed a consciousness of the value of Northrup School in our community. We have an extremely important role to play in this community and have become aware of our potential as a community agent.
2. The ice for coöperative planning has been broken and our present experience in coöperative problem-solving presages the failure of autocratic means for working together. We have practiced democracy. Some have suggested that it is a starting point—and a highly successful one for we have found our system to be practical and workable.
3. Generally, teachers and administrators have worked well together. The majority of people have contributed much in terms of time and effort, not to neglect understanding. We have enjoyed working together.
4. Good leadership in the committees has opened the path to successful solutions for problems undertaken. The organization is basic, but it must be geared to a maximum leadership-followership coefficient. Members have been conscious of their alternating roles of leadership and followership.

We have considered the end product of our efforts, the project, in the light of value and effectiveness. Equally as important to our evaluation is a consideration of the group process—our way of working. For the purpose of simplification, we have classified the group process material in terms of positive and negative effects. The following ideas show why the group process has been relatively successful:

1. Leadership is the key to the process. Where our leadership was good and objectives were developed initially, the group process was extremely effective.
2. As we became better acquainted with each other and realized pleasure in working together, the group process thrived. Understanding also increased when we began to view each other as honest friends working toward the same end.
3. Participation increased as we observed actual results from our coöperative problem-solving. We developed respect for the contribution of each person regardless of degree of contribution.
4. The group process has extended into our relationship with youngsters in the classroom. Children have benefited from our way of working.

No process for coöperative action can be perfect. There are impediments to group thinking. The process is perfect, but unfortunately the participants are not. Our human nature often makes it difficult for us to share ideas—to think together—to put the group ahead of our personal ego. The following reasons for poor group thinking were suggested in your evaluations:

1. Complacency and indifference on the part of some key members reduce our group thinking potential. The persistent criticism is centered around a lack of total participation in the groups. Three reasons were suggested for failure to participate in group discussion: Fear of authority, lack of interest, and laziness. Other reasons suggested were the following: Fear of criticism by peers, too much extra work involved, selfishness on part of participants.
2. We haven't always understood the importance of the task. Thus, often-times we have been working at cross purposes—following personal interests—thinking on different levels—refusing to coöperate.
3. Another group of criticisms suggested that participants didn't have sufficient time to prepare for discussions. Thus there were many "side tracks." We spent much time "jumping around the topic."
4. We didn't all understand each other at first. It took time for us to become adjusted.
5. Too much committee activity has dulled our effectiveness. (One person suggested this point.)

Recommendations Were Agreed upon

A final consideration in the light of our evaluations concerns recommendations for the future of our way of working. Obviously, we are

somewhat satisfied that the over-all method has merit, but continuous evaluation must result in continuous improvement. The following recommendations were made in your evaluations to improve our way of working:

1. Since leadership is extremely important to the process, we could benefit from positive guidance either by administration or teachers. Some evaluations suggested leadership by outside consultants. Others recommended the use of consultants in an advisory capacity. Both consultant roles ought to be considered. One evaluation suggested that both the chairman and recorder be elected by the group. The only qualification demanded of the leader was an understanding of the group process.
2. A persistent recommendation was that honest friendship govern every relationship between teachers in Northrup School. Another way of stating this point might be that we accept all people as human beings and treat them with utmost respect for that reason.
3. General meetings should be interspersed with committee meetings. Plans for using general meetings ranged from every second to every fourth meeting of committees. This would allow for an exchange of information on the activities of all committees plus allowing time for the discussion of specific problems of a general nature by the entire faculty. A suggestion was also made that we discuss committee activities during the coffee time.
4. Groups should be smaller to afford maximum participation. It was suggested that this might be accomplished by dividing the curriculum committee into Upper and Lower Elementary Groups. Recommendations to the effect that the Community Relations and Teacher Affairs Committees be made smaller were made.
5. A specific project outline should be submitted to each committee member before the meeting day. This would include the business agenda, minutes from the last meeting and questions for consideration at the future meeting.
6. We ought to break up into our committee groups sooner than we now do. This would cut down on our coffee time but lengthen discussion time.
7. We should be allowed to shift committees occasionally—continually keeping before us a fresh viewpoint on the solution of common problems.
8. We should develop at least one credit workshop from study groups.
9. We must devise a way by which greater participation will be secured. People must desire to participate. They can't be forced.
10. Steering Committee would be more effective if it consisted of members of the faculty and student body, plus the school principal. A chairman of the faculty to head the Planning Committee was also recommended.

11. The year's work should be evaluated by a committee composed of one representative from each committee.
12. Vital issues should be voted on by all teachers concerned.
13. We should move into the area of difficult problems now that we have had many months of experience at problem-solving.

Let me conclude this report with a few thoughts from your evaluations. We have learned that the process is slow—often tedious—time-consuming. We realize that it takes infinite patience—and faith that the good in people by far outweighs the evil. We are aware that some members cannot assume as much responsibility as others. We believe that the delegation of responsibility must be a gradual one at best. We have observed over the period of ten months a general improvement in teacher-teacher, pupil-teacher, pupil-pupil, parent-teacher relationships and attitudes. We have felt a definite art in the school program other than in the classroom. We have found a practical middleground between loose-ends organization and dictatorship. Working together toward common goals has given us practice in democracy. Whatever also happens in the ensuing year, we must not lose our friendly, informal atmosphere in which free expression blossoms. The future of our program rests on your group decisions. Think this material through carefully—critically—objectively. Our discussions will commence next week at this point.

A SECOND CRITICAL PEEK WAS TAKEN

The first group session on the results of our original individual evaluations revealed a keen understanding of our school organization. I believe we know where we are; where we are going; what we want to achieve. As you recall, we had several days to examine critically the materials for discussion. Thus, when we met, we discussed our evaluation on the basis of these four major questions:

1. Are there any omissions from the document as far as your personal evaluations are concerned?
2. Are there any new additions which, for the cause of clarity, ought to be added?
3. What ought we to do with this material in terms of next year's program?
4. In terms of our original group objectives, what did we accomplish?

Rather than discuss these points in a large group, we broke up into groups of four persons each. Each group had a recorder. After the discussion period, we reassembled into a large group and heard reports from each of the recorders. The recorder's reports were extremely enlightening and certainly showed keen insight into our problems.

In reporting these discussion results, we merely classified them on the basis of each of the four questions. The following summaries represent your fine work:

Area I—Any omissions of material?

1. The Planning Committee should present the results of their meetings during coffee periods.
2. The passing procedure suggested by the Teacher Affairs Committee should be considered by the entire faculty.
3. The summary lacked preciseness.
4. The committees have neglected some of the specific projects assigned to them.
5. Conference attendance could be a function of the Teacher Affairs Committee program.
6. Reports on conferences should be handled by the Teacher Affairs Committee.

Area II—Any additions to material?

1. Have reference books in one room so that committee members could use the materials in their spare time.
2. Develop a course of study for all grade levels.
3. Review the year's work in an all-faculty meeting next fall after our ideas have solidified.
4. Some committees should be made smaller.
5. Study groups should be formed for group leadership techniques.
6. The entire faculty should determine pupil needs in terms of group objectives for the entire year.
7. Decisions made by committees should be referred to the entire faculty for study and acceptance.
8. A workshop should be set up to study child growth and development in terms of how it applies to our program.
9. A definite policy on punishment should be set up.
10. A committee should set up the organization for group evaluation of our work, but the study of our work should be by the entire group.
11. How can we interest the community in parent-teacher conferences through our teacher committees?
12. How can we develop a respect for property by our children through our teacher committees?
13. Our committee chairman or recorder should prepare an agenda for each meeting. This ought to be in the hands of each member at least a day before the meeting.
14. The Planning Committee should consist of committee chairmen plus the administrative staff.
15. The following ideas on organization were suggested by one group:
 - An elected chairman of the faculty (presently the chairman of the Planning Committee).
 - Teachers choose their own committees.
 - Chairmen and recorders elected by group.

Area III—Where to go with this material?

1. From this material, we ought to overcome some of our barriers to next year's program.

2. We need several general meetings to determine the effects this evaluation will have on next year's program.
3. We must evaluate this material in terms of its implications for helping children.
4. We ought to investigate the possibility of Tenure Credit for our committee activity.

Area IV—What have we accomplished?

1. We have learned to work together.
2. Even though we have much to learn about the group, we have made a good start.
3. The group process is slow, but certainly most effective in solving our problems.
4. We are working toward a common goal.
5. We have become more aware of our problems.
6. We have developed group understanding.
7. A democratic feeling has developed among the faculty in working out our school policy.

Several points were recorded which are relatively general. This question was posed by one group: "What is the tangible evidence that children have benefited from these committee projects?" Another point was suggested to the effect that if some of our committee activities have been unsuccessful, the process is not at fault. Rather such factors as the personalities of individuals involved, the size of groups, the activities pursued, make actual achievement through the process difficult. Another point mentioned was that we may not, as yet, accept individuals completely as human beings with an inherent right to speak, but we are moving in that direction. Our criticism must be constructive rather than destructive.

The group experience of last Tuesday was excellent. We are gradually rounding out the complete picture of our organization. Here are the questions for our discussion groups on Tuesday, May 31:

1. Can you add anything to the first two reports?
2. On the basis of both reports, what groups do you believe are necessary (including present committees) for our program next year? (Please suggest possible composition.)
3. How can we give consideration to the total recommendations in planning next year's program? (Please be specific.)
4. What major problems should be considered by our groups next year?
5. What would you like to see accomplished next year?
6. How can we translate the effects of our in-service group program to greater benefits for children?

A THIRD GROUP EVALUATION WAS MADE

Our second group session was as inspiring as the first. It has been extremely interesting to observe group finesse developing as we deal with our common problems. The outstanding factor in Tuesday's meeting was the facility with which we attacked our problems. To learn to think and

work in groups is to recognize and respect each individual with whom we come in contact as a human being of equal status to ourselves.

We used cross sectional grouping for our discussion groups this week again. Each group had four participants. The recorder in each group led discussion. After a period of discussion in small groups, we met in the total group to hear the reports of all recorders. Each committee contributed many ideas to our present understanding of our way of working.

Discussion in each group centered around six major questions. These questions are as follows:

1. Has anything been omitted from these first two reports?
2. In the light of information on both reports, what groups do you believe are needed next year?
3. How can we implement the recommendations in next year's program? (Please give concrete examples.)
4. What important problems should the group consider next year?
5. What should be the major accomplishments of the group next year?
6. How can we tie up in-service study with programs that benefit children?

The following ideas were recorded in the discussion groups in answer to the major questions:

Area I—Additions to our data?

1. A type of student council or court should be established to handle student discipline situations. We want to engender a form of self-discipline rather than a punishment policy.

Area II—Groups required to implement our objectives?

1. Planning Committee (same as last year).
2. Teacher Affairs Committee (same as last year).
3. Community Relations Committee (same as last year).
4. Health Committee (composed of teachers, parents, children to handle health drives and health information).
5. Curriculum Committee:
 - Course of Study Committee.
 - Curriculum Study Committee.
 - Guidance Committee.
 - Grouping Committee.
6. Welfare Committee (help needy children).

The following general recommendations were made with regard to committee organization for next year:

1. Committee membership should be rotated.
2. Committee members should be allowed to change committees if dissatisfied with present work, but no wholesale change should be allowed.
3. Membership should be changed semi-annually to allow each teacher a part in the solution of over-all school problems.
4. Committee chairmen should be rotated.

5. Committees should choose their own chairman.
6. All grade levels should be represented in the curriculum committee.
7. Form committees only as the need arises—otherwise have general meetings.

Area III—Mechanics determining our next year's program?

1. Our planning committee should study all recommendations and set up program for next year.
2. We should begin next year's program with a study of all recommendations.
3. We should adopt the organization suggested in Items 14 and 15 of our last report.
4. We should set up an action committee to consider all recommendations to date in terms of our organization for next year. This committee would consist of the following persons:
 - 1. Representative from each committee (4).
 - 2. Representatives elected at large.
 - 3. Administrative persons.

Area IV—Problems for study?

1. How can we bring together the forces of parents, teachers, merchants, and children to eliminate excessive *tardiness*?
2. How can we attack the problem of discipline in the halls, classrooms, and streets?
3. How can we establish a course of study?
4. What policy should we have in regard to punishment?
5. Can we set up an effective student government organization?
6. What materials and resources are available for use as teaching aids?
7. How can we best develop the habits and skills of citizenship in children?
8. What kind of counseling program ought we to have in Northrup School?
9. How can we accomplish adult coöperation?
10. How can we best help underprivileged children?
11. How can we systematize our school procedures for greater efficiency?
12. How can we tailor our curriculum to the child's needs?
13. What techniques are possible for continuous evaluation of the relationship between school and community?

Area V—What accomplishments next year?

1. More total group programs in the gym supervised by teachers.
2. Group singing sessions of the entire student body.
3. One all-school money-raising program to raise funds for additional equipment.
4. Establish a Room Mother's Organization in each room.
5. Increase the instructional supplies available to each teacher.

6. Develop a counseling program for the entire school.
7. Improve conditions in the halls.
8. Develop a program of classroom supervision which will help teachers with problem-solving.
9. Individual evaluation of classroom techniques.
10. Week-end staff meetings at one of the state camps to which we could bring consultants to help us mix work and play.

Area VI—How can children benefit?

1. Have as our aim teaching in terms of what we know about the growth and development of children.
2. Teach children according to their needs.
3. Help children to grow through a flexible grouping plan geared to their individual needs.
4. Invite children to our Tuesday afternoon teachers' meetings; share refreshments with them; let them see how we are planning coöperatively to improve learning conditions at Northrup School.
5. Planned excursions for teachers and children.
6. Study community resources to see what is available that will help children.
7. Set up a fund to handle expenses involved in teachers' entertaining parents at school.
8. Survey upper elementary children to get their suggestions for improving our offerings to children.
9. Evaluate our coöperative way of working next year in terms of projects undertaken.
10. Develop a functional testing program for the entire school.

The representative committee plan of study suggested in Area Three was adopted by our group. The purpose of this Action Committee will be to study all of our evaluative materials critically—to analyze what we have said about ourselves—to develop a plan of organization for next year based on all existing recommendations—to present their plan to the entire faculty at a meeting on June 14.

The Action Committee Report suggested the following problems to be studied by the various committees:

Community Relations Committee

1. How can we unite the forces of parents, teachers, merchants, and children to work on common problems?
2. How can we stimulate adult coöperation?
3. How can we best help underprivileged children?
4. What techniques are possible for continuous evaluation of the relationship between the school and community?

Curriculum Committee

1. How can we attack the problem of self-discipline in the halls, classrooms, and streets through child development principles?
2. How can we establish a guide for classroom procedures?

3. Can we set up an effective student government in Northrup School?
4. How can we best develop habits and skills of citizenship in our children?
5. What type of classroom counseling program is best for our school?
6. How can we tailor our curriculum to fit the child's needs?

Teacher Affairs Committee

1. What materials and resources are available as teaching aids?
2. Bring in consultants.
3. Sponsor a week-end staff meeting at one of our state camps to which we could bring consultants to help us with our problems.

Planning Committee

1. How can we systematize our school procedures for greater efficiency?
2. How can we bring about greater coöperation of teachers in our building?
3. How can we best help committees to solve their problems?

This report was the basis on which the faculty at our school was organized for the ensuing year. We have learned much—but most of all that evaluation must be a continuous part of the coöperative process.

WHAT WAS LEARNED IN THE EVALUATION PROJECT?

The attack made by this illustrative school program is not a final answer to this problem of evaluation. It is only one way in which one school tried to evaluate. Certainly this faculty made mistakes, but they, too, are part of the process. We learn best by doing. A concluding thought on evaluation: It is a continuous phase of the coöperative process based on introspection and observation by participants, groups, and observers. Its purpose is understanding and direction.

QUESTIONS

1. What is the place of educational testing in the educational program? Should teachers be evaluated on the basis of the success of their students on achievement tests? Should a board of education evaluate the school by achievement tests?
2. Should the teacher know the intelligence quotient of her children? Should the parent be informed of the intelligence quotient of his children? Should the child be informed of his own intelligence quotient?
3. How can behavior be evaluated in the community? What are the limitations of such evaluation? What are the strong points in such a system of evaluation?

4. How can self-evaluation upgrade a school staff? What are the limitations to such a procedure? Should self-evaluation be the only evaluation of individual teachers?
5. How does purpose tie in with evaluation? How can you account for people getting different results from research on the same problem? Why do supreme court justices consistently differ in opinion when they all have the same facts?

PROBLEM

Outline a program for evaluating changes of behavior of pupils in a ninth-grade class in community civics. How could you check on what pupils are now doing in community life?

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Part Three

The Future of Democratic Administration

XII

A Preparatory Program for Educational Leadership

Professors of educational administration are now in a period of educational history in which they have become the cynosure of all eyes. People believe today that leadership ability can be developed through planned programs of learning and instruction. Three decades ago such a concept would have seemed chimerical, but that is true no longer. The thought of preparing real educational statesmen has touched such universal chords in laymen, teachers, and prospective administrators that these people literally are requesting higher institutions of learning to blaze the trail to a new place of distinction in preparation programs.

Why the challenge should electrify people's imagination is easy to discern. If higher institutions should discover even a few techniques and procedures for developing leadership ability it would present a new challenge to those engaged in educational work. In 1948 there were over 860,000 teachers in America working with more than twenty-three million pupils. All teachers are potential leaders in community life. Even more important than the personal leadership ability of teachers is the possibility of developing the innate capacities of pupils.

Surely teachers are hovering on the edge of that greatest threshold of democratic action, the development of leadership in all.

The problems involved in nourishing and strengthening such a preparation program are acute and many-sided and call for a fountainhead of research in the next few decades. Never was there greater need for social inventiveness. Effecting a solution to these problems admittedly is going to be difficult because the problems are so closely intermeshed with the social, economic, and political patterns of the times.

Suggestions which follow may indicate guide lines for the future and then again they may not. They are presented more to point up the problems than to propose their solution.

Confusion in administration today seems to arise in large part from the prevalent misconception of democratic leadership. Perhaps the most popular misconception is that titular leaders should be out in front of their followers. Having to be out in front encourages superintendents to assume roles for which they have very limited qualifications. The titular leader tends to feel that he has certain status walls that must be maintained. When people expect and sometimes demand that superintendents lead and teachers follow, it sets up a framework of operation from which even well-intentioned administrators find it difficult to escape. The pedestal upon which the administrator sits, together with the spider web of channels in which he must operate, has certain inevitable implications for education. To discuss all these implications would require a far longer treatment than is possible in this presentation. Here in passing we give only a few examples, by no means an exhaustive list. The imaginative thinker can see with little effort that the pattern in which titular leaders operate ramifies into all phases of administrative work.

1. Many administrators are embarrassed if staff members display superior knowledge in a field, especially when this oc-

curs in the presence of laymen or members of the board of education.

2. Many administrators are tempted to employ those who know less than they do, or at best those who agree with their fundamental point of view.
3. Many titular leaders carefully refrain from training a logical successor. In a few instances they hope that a poor leader will follow them.

Constantly trying to preserve status walls is a greater barrier to the development of democratic leadership than most people have yet realized. Teachers, administrators, and people burn up mental energy worrying whether they have stated ideas that properly should have been stated by someone else. It is the rare teacher who expresses his thoughts freely in the presence of the administrator and members of the community. On the contrary, it is usual for the administrator to do most of the talking before mixed groups of laymen and teachers.

The advance toward that meridian of perfection in democratic interaction where leadership flits from one member to another as a way of working is going to be slow because people think of leadership in terms of a hierarchy. The superintendent, not the teacher, is expected to express the needs of the school. The administrator's cupidity for control is caused to a great extent by the direct or indirect demands of the public. The engendering, in the minds of lay citizens, of what leadership really means in a free society is an area of development that has not yet been touched. A school staff can go no faster than the community will permit. Basic to progress in democratic operation is a change in the point of view of the American public.

When a staff is well trained and carefully selected the administrator cannot be out in front in many fields. Theoretically, if he gives all his energy to developing the staff there is little opportunity for him to become an authority in specialized

areas of work. His time is devoted to the development of others. In actual practice, the administrator is so motivated by a growing staff that he moves ahead as a keen thinker in many fields. There never was a top-flight educational leader without a great staff; always it is the staff that makes the administrator great. Titular leaders are now failing to manifest qualities of educational statesmanship because they are laboring under misconceptions. Helping them see that real leadership begets leadership in others is the first step in formulating a preparation program for school administrators.

Graduate Education Must Assume Its Responsibilities

Higher institutions of learning are charged with the responsibility for developing educational leaders. They should evade the issue no longer. That this is an extremely complicated assignment must be conceded because there are so many infinitely varied abilities to be taken into account. To develop educational statesmen is much more difficult than to prepare lawyers, doctors, or members of other professions. In many respects developing leaders is a new concept and one that envisions a much more inclusive educational program than has ever been conceived in the past. To put it another way, leadership development is a dynamic and challenging thought in its own right; simple endorsement of the concept carries significant implications for higher education. The moment professors of educational administration accept the premise that leaders are made and not born, they are committed to a new and different type of preparation program.

How the content will be selected and taught will be interesting to observe. Certainly it will include much of the same content that is taught today because it does have applicability to administrative work. It seems logical to assume that the point of emphasis in tomorrow's program will be to bridge the gap between what is taught in the classroom and what is practiced in public-school situations.

A FUNCTIONAL PROGRAM MUST BE DEVELOPED

That there is an appalling lag in all fields, the preparation of educational administrators included, no longer is questioned. In fact, there are some who feel that there is a greater lag in school administration than in most other areas. That there should be some lag most people agree, for a clear vision of distant goals is practical knowledge; it throws light on the road to be traveled. People need a clear vision of a functional program in order to chart a course that will take them from where they are to where they want to be. The point at issue is not the lag in education, but the kind of lag that is omnipresent. The crucial problem is whether maximal efforts are being put forth to overcome weaknesses in present programs so that the ideal in operation can be approached in the shortest period of time.

Identifying weaknesses in programs of preparation is difficult because of the many intangible factors that influence practice in the field. Why people do not act and live as they profess to believe is difficult to say, even for the people themselves. Evaluators have not yet found an answer to this problem, but the difficulty of the problem is no justification for ignoring it. Higher institutions of learning will have to render the best judgment possible from the facts available and hope that truer facts will emerge as new programs develop. To delay action for lack of answers is not to start at all, for never will there be complete solutions to problems in human relationships.

In spite of all that has been written on the selection and certification of teachers and administrators, members of the educational profession still have little objective evidence upon which to base their decisions or set up programs of action to implement their decisions. The standards that have been used are artificial standards—credit hours of preparation, bachelor's, master's, or doctor's degrees, and years of experience in the field. The assumption is that people who have piled up a

sufficient number of credits to earn degrees will be better operators in public-school work than those who have not. That knowledge is needed for effective leadership is not questioned. Certainly people should know the facts and principles that function in their professional work in order to deal effectively with the practical problems that arise from day to day. The point is that knowledge should be evaluated for its appropriateness. Is it the most suitable knowledge that can be offered? Is there too much or too little repetition of the same knowledge in a program? Is content being taught in the most effective manner? Do degrees obtained really indicate proficiency in a field—and if they do, proficiency in what? Permanent certification frequently follows one to five years of successful experience in public-school positions. What is good or bad experience rarely is evaluated and as a rule receives little serious thought or consideration. People can learn to do better things that should not be done at all. Experience, it should be recognized, has its negative as well as its positive qualities. To depend almost solely upon artificial standards such as marks, degrees, and nonevaluated experience surely is anachronistic in a period when there is so much stress and strain and need for social leadership.

To think of preparation in terms of abilities and to set up programs to develop those abilities is a frontier in education that has not been crossed or even approached. In fact, less attention has been given to developing competencies in public-school personnel than in professions such as medicine, dentistry, engineering, veterinary medicine, and others of a similar type. How to set up teaching and learning situations that combine knowledge and experience in the most efficacious manner is the cutting edge in preparation programs. At the present time there is too much emphasis upon book learning to the neglect of application. However, to swing completely to the experience approach at the expense of theories and principles would be even more deserving of censure. The pressing

need is to find ways and means of making academic study and the actual doing of a task a unitary process. In short, it is futile to think of developing appropriate leadership abilities so long as programs concern themselves largely with mastery of subject matter of dubious parentage. The problem then is twofold: (1) the establishment of an integrated program and (2) the directing of the program toward the development of inherent talents in the school personnel.

A number of modifications have been made in the curriculum content for students of school administration throughout the years. Whether these innovations have brought significant progress is still an issue in the minds of many people. Changes in the behavior of school people have been so infinitesimally slow to appear that even new courses of study have been conservative in outlook. As with most curriculum developments, the changes usually are additive rather than integrative; seldom are courses dropped from the program of studies. Once material has been offered it is difficult to eliminate it, even though other material is much more timely and important.

Continually adding new courses has resulted in much repetition in educational content. By way of example, it is common practice to find in college catalogues such titles as "The Administration of the Elementary School," "The Administration of Vocational Education," "The Administration of Guidance," "The Administration of the Rural School," "The Administration of Higher Education," "The Administration of Visual Aids." In fact, an imaginative professor might offer a course in administration for any phase of the educational program. When there are so many courses of the same general nature, it is inevitable that there should be considerable duplication of content. How much repetition is desirable is difficult to determine. That some is appropriate in order to achieve mastery of fundamental concepts is apparent to those who have worked with graduate programs of education. On every hand there is evidence that school administrators have failed to master basic principles

in such areas as philosophy, psychology, and social foundations, mastery that is definitely needed if these men are to become real educational statesmen. Also, it is clear to observers that some superintendents and principals have insufficient understanding of the essential principles of administration itself. How to attain mastery of fundamental concepts with the minimum of repetition is an important curriculum and teaching problem that must be faced in the future.

Present Instructional Organizations Have Failed

A significant road block in the improvement of preparation programs is the prevalent system of class organization used in higher institutions of learning. Professors of educational administration are handicapped in selecting learning experiences by the division of educational programs into atomistic courses that are taught as separate and independent units instead of as closely knit parts that fit into a pattern as a whole. To some extent the organization determines what will be achieved, even more than the program itself. The organization frequently inhibits rather than encourages the development of abilities in student personnel. To plan observational tours, internships, or other types of field experience is difficult because they will jumble the organizational machinery. Courses are offered in such piecemeal fashion that students rush from class to class picking up scattered bits of information from many different areas of study. It is literally impossible to continue a vital discussion because the pupils must go to another professor at the end of the hourly period. In other words, educational programs have to fit the organization rather than the organization fitting the program.

One of the primary goals of graduate work in school administration is to motivate students to read and study searchingly in typical subject-matter fields for the purpose of discovering new concepts to further their professional development. The purpose frequently is not attained because students taking

work in the disciplines spend their time preparing for examinations in rigid course offerings. What is studied in these courses may be related to school administration, and then again it may not. Prospective administrators may expend considerable energy preparing assignments for the disciplines when the actual content pertaining to school administration might be taught in a month or less. What is needed today is content from many disciplines so selected, organized, and taught that it makes a valuable contribution to the preparation of educational leaders.

Before this discussion leaves the disciplines, attention should be directed to another impediment in the path to graduate study in subjects other than education. In many disciplines a series of prerequisites is required before students are permitted to take graduate work in the respective discipline fields. The prerequisites may include as much as fifteen hours of undergraduate work. If these prerequisites are necessary for an understanding of advanced courses, the standards can be defended. However, in many instances there is little relationship between the prerequisites and the advanced courses that are offered. Such requirements for graduate study either limit the number of fields in which a student can study or increase the number of courses in his total program. What actually occurs, as a rule, is that students confine their graduate work to two or, at most, three areas of study.

That students should have greater access to more fields most university professors will agree. But time is of the essence in the preparation of school administrators. Students should read widely but they cannot read everything. For best results, subject matter should come from many departmental areas and be selected because of its significant contribution to the development of outstanding administrative officials. There should be no needless duplication of content and no prerequisites that will prevent students from getting the essential knowledge needed for their personal growth and improvement. A system

needs to be devised whereby students can draw from every discipline area on the campus useful ideas that will aid them in their professional preparation.

Present Systems of Evaluation Are Inadequate

Whether the present plan of examinations with its attendant system of grading, followed later by a master's or doctor's degree, is the best way to develop leadership ability is no longer a moot question in the minds of many people. Being able to memorize subject matter in order to give it back to instructors on an examination is an indication of certain academic ability, but it may tell little more. An evaluation system is needed that will discover strengths and weaknesses in their abilities as people endeavor to exercise leadership in a community school situation. If the evaluation points up in sharp relief certain deficiencies common to titular leaders, then higher institutions of learning can intelligently devise a preparation program to overcome these deficiencies. To be sure, learning and evaluation are involved problems to which there never will be a simple answer. The point here is that the present system of evaluation, consisting primarily of grades and honor points, is not achieving the best possible results. Surely higher institutions of learning, to be consistent with their present system of training physicians, dentists, and other professional people, are logically committed to functional training procedures for school administrators.

In the preparation program for school administrators, provision should be made for observation of practice in the field to be followed by a critical evaluation of it for its desirable and undesirable qualities. Observation tours are just as essential in the preparation of school superintendents as in the preparation of instructors in biology, agriculture, and other areas where field trips have become accepted practice in the teaching and learning process. People view recommended procedures more

hospitably when they see them in actual operation. Or to say it another way, students break away from traditional beliefs much more quickly when they observe action programs than when they read about such programs.

The Field Practicum Must Be Developed

The next step after observation should be actual experience doing the tasks the students expect to do later in a real job situation. This may be a form of internship lasting for a year or part of a year, or perhaps just a day, depending upon the kind of experience the students need. As a working principle students should spend no more time doing a task than is required to learn it. If a job has been mastered to a practical degree, learning has ceased. To keep a proper balance, some experiences may have to be omitted and others restricted because there is a limit on the time that can be devoted to any one phase of an educational program. In other words, experiences should be selected and used because they fit into the pattern for developing competencies in prospective educators. As nearly as possible this field experience should permit students to assume full responsibility for jobs, receiving credit and taking blame for successes and failures. It is responsibility for socially significant tasks that provides the most salutary learning experience. The reality of experience here is significant because people approach jobs with a different attitude when they know they are accountable for results.

When students are given responsibility for applying educational theory in real situations they should learn to think and to understand both theory and practice and be able to communicate their ideas to pupils, parents, and other members of the community. They should learn to coöperate with people by being engaged in coöperative undertakings throughout their entire training program. In other words, the striking characteristic of the new school should be the close correlation

between classroom knowledge and experience. Prospective administrators should learn that they grow from participatory experiences in community life, community here being interpreted broadly to include in its totality a world-community situation.

When prospective administrators have become imbued with the faith that everyone can contribute leadership in some capacity, they will have learned the first step in cooperative interaction. The second step involves focusing attention on the divisive and nondemocratic conditions in society such as hierarchies in positions, class structures in the culture, racial prejudice, intolerant attitudes, and all the other practices that lead people away from democratic living rather than toward it. The third step involves mastering the art of thinking and working together so that the legions of younger people will see and will believe sincerely that liberty, equality, and fraternity are functional goals that can be achieved in large part through effort.

QUESTIONS

1. How much time is now spent in school studying the history of a procedure or a movement rather than what the procedure or movement should accomplish? Does present-day education give much attention to values? Should major emphasis in education be upon what should be or on what has been?
2. What methods and programs in education teach originality? Is there curriculum content that develops creativeness? How would you teach people to be original?
3. What are good in-service education programs for administrators? Why have in-service education programs frequently been ineffective in changing the behavior of the people? How would you evaluate the effectiveness of an in-service program?
4. How can schools keep a proper balance between direct and vicarious experience? How much experience in assuming responsibility do students gain from present-day educational programs? What can be done to give students genuine experiences?
5. Should higher institutions of learning award a different type of degree to school administrators? What are strengths in the present degree program? What are its weaknesses?

PROBLEM

Formulate a program for developing leadership in in-service education in prospective administrators. How does this program differ from most of the present-day programs?

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XIII

A Realistic Vision of the Future

American and world developments since 1912 have brought changes and trends in education which are staggering in both their proportions and their implications. It takes but a quick look at some of these changes and trends to see their terrific impact upon laymen and members of the educational profession. Here are a few of these significant trends and facts:

1. The attack on the formal curriculum of the secondary school.
2. Changes in the instructional program of the elementary school and recommended changes for the future.
3. The application of democratic principles in both classroom work and administration.
4. The findings of research on child growth and development.
5. The development of the community school idea.
6. The acceptance of organismic psychology.
7. The emphasis on education for citizenship.
8. The tremendous increase in adult education of all kinds.

In retrospect it seems remarkable that laymen and professional personnel have accepted these changes as placidly as

they have. Many of the innovations that have emerged tend to shatter value concepts people have held since time immemorial.

The developments and trends just listed are far from complete. Instead of resulting in programs that are fixed and static, they exemplify forces that are operating relentlessly and are, in a sense, giving rise to increasing uncertainty. There is reason to believe, however, that some of these programs will come to fruition in the next decade, although many will take considerably longer. One fact seems certain, namely, that changes in the future will be accelerated and not decreased. Educational leadership will without question face many new challenges in the years immediately ahead.

It seems germane now to describe the kind of setting in which public-school people will live and work as they strive to bring better cohesion and continuity to an emergent and evolving program of education.

LEADERSHIP IN EDUCATION WILL BROADEN IN SCOPE

Educational leadership in the future will be exercised not only within the school but also within the community by individuals and groups that are actively involved in solving community problems. Learning opportunities, the application of principles, the content to be studied—all rest, largely, in the community. They lie there dormant, ready to be tapped and developed by the right kind of educational leadership. The community will become the laboratory for educational experiences. The school building will become a convenient meeting place in which to study, discuss, and develop programs for community betterment.

Education never should have been construed to mean teaching and learning separated from living itself. That education has been so interpreted is self-evident to those who have observed public-school programs in action. When public schools

were established to replace and supplement the old apprenticeship system of teaching and learning, the programs swung sharply toward formalism, almost forgetting that all experience is education, whether it be good or bad. Education is life and no other interpretation should be placed on it.

The revivification and refinement of neighborhood group activity will be the educational imperative of tomorrow. Small groups studying, thinking, advancing toward the solution of local, state, national, and international problems will lead to a higher quality of coöperative living. People working together in neighborhood groups trying to solve problems of mutual concern constitute democracy in action.

To make the community dream come true will be difficult and is admittedly impossible of full achievement now or in the immediate future. Existing conditions do not permit its rapid fulfillment. Children are still reared in autocratic homes and participate as adults in professional and social life that is more authoritarian than coöperative. Under such conditions striking changes in democratic behavior cannot be expected in a short period of time. The mores militate against rapid changes in behavior patterns. Any administrator who expects democratic techniques and procedures to be all sweetness and light is foredoomed to bitter disappointment. To illustrate the binding chains of tradition, one needs but to turn back the pages of history to Peter the Great, the dynamic figure who tried to alter social customs by autocratic decrees followed by the wholesale massacre of nonconformists. In spite of his power to execute those who refused to conform, he could not change the Russians by shaving off their beards or by building a new capital at "St. Petersburg." In truth, there is no technique or procedure that can alter behavior patterns without some friction or conflict, be it concealed or overt in expression. It seems appropriate to stress this fact in discussing democratic administration, for there is just as great danger in overselling a

point of view as in understating its values. The vision of a perfect, democratic school community program is a goal, a beautiful goal that people are striving to reach; the program will not go into full bloom after a month, a year, or even a decade of operation.

Because people cannot reach Elysium is no reason why they should be convinced of perdition. A way of life is like a stream, always moving in some direction. The charge that rests with the educators of the future is to keep the stream flowing toward a better type of coöperative relationship, a relationship in which decisions and programs of action are determined by good will, discussion, persuasion, and reason, rather than by pressure, threats, and force. Each educational leader should be socially responsible for making a contribution, large or small, toward the improvement and strengthening of democratic beliefs and behaviors. A true community school is not a construction that is erected from wholes; it is composed of parts carefully placed and joined together. Possibly in some instances it will take many people many years to make a community school to operate with even a fair degree of effectiveness.

School administrators, instead of being discouraged, should be pleased with the progress that has been achieved in the last two decades. There are very few educational administrators, if any, who will admit that they are autocratic in their day-by-day practices and procedures. Lip service to the principles of democratic operation has been widely accepted in business, industry, government, and even in informal social living. The practice of placing command orders in teachers' mailboxes is rare today. There are few if any supervisors who figuratively listen at keyholes to check on classroom recitations. Orders may be issued but they are fewer in number and when given they usually are followed by an expression of regret that they have been delivered in such a domineering manner. Even though there are still militaristic school systems, the trend is definitely toward a higher level of coöperative sharing of responsibilities.

PATIENCE IS REQUIRED

What educators should realize is that the essence of social reform is patience and hard work over a long period of time. Faith in action programs is a practical necessity for school administrators. Lack of confidence is more frequently the cause of failure with new programs than lack of knowledge. Educators often lose their deep-seated belief in a principle or ideal because the first steps do not materialize as pictured in the planning and formulation period. Other school administrators become reactionary and cynical because their immediate goals have been set too high. Trying to change the ways of living in a community is not a task for one person or even for one generation, but the achievement of thousands of people building upon the solid foundation of those who have preceded them. Improving the democratic social order is a coöperative undertaking of gigantic proportions. Any contribution is a significant contribution. School people who are patiently working toward an ideal should take pride in minor achievements. Even holding democratic ground that has been gained is at times one phase of progress.

SOCIO-ECONOMIC CONDITIONS CREATE SERIOUS PROBLEMS

Problems that confront educators and others interested in furthering a coöperative way of living are numerous and varied and difficult of solution because they are so deeply embedded in the social and economic patterns of society. Autocratic behavior in the family and in the community and professional areas of life have been mentioned as significant road blocks to democratic living. There are others just as formidable. Men talk of equality and fraternity when there is social inequality in almost all our institutions. By way of example, there is a class structure in America that divides people more than it unites them. Rural people are placed in a different class setting from urban people. Negroes are not accorded equality with

whites. There is no apparent decrease in the conflict between gentiles and Jews. Religious prejudice, after a period of relative quiescence in the past thirty years, once more is beginning to emerge as a national issue of great import. How men are accepted by their fellow men depends upon their financial standing, their professional position, the section of the community in which they live, and other factors of a similar nature. The majority of people in democratic countries do not really believe in equality nor do they practice it. Autocratic values still determine the behavior of most of them.

In the first chapter the evils existing in present-day competitive society were discussed at sufficient length to point out that here is a cultural problem of magnitude. There can be little purpose in belaboring the point further other than to say that economists, in their efforts to discover laws operating in the field of labor and management, find generalizations difficult because of the many noneconomic issues that influence decisions. The battle between labor and management is not concerned solely with the need for food, clothing, or shelter; it is also a struggle for power:

Sedulously struggling for wealth, power, and personal prestige develops antidemocratic behavior more than it develops communion and fraternity. People who strive to get ahead at any cost are apt to lose all sense of proportion as to what is good or bad in the cultural pattern. Cutthroat competition can easily destroy democratic ideals. For instance, minority groups are seldom attacked except when the majority feel that they are threatened. As Tenebaum has so clearly pointed out: "The strong, deep-seated prejudice against the Negro developed after his emancipation. Before this, he was no problem. He was confined to a fixed status and he offered no competition. The Negro fought as equals with whites in the Revolutionary War. He was encouraged in miscegenation with whites while he was an indentured servant" (22). Tenebaum goes on to say: "Caste is defended by two groups: (1) those who want someone to

look down upon and (2) those who find it an easy method to exploit a large reservoir of cheap labor" (22). The moment individuals or groups become greatly concerned about personal advantage they begin to drift away from the community. When there is continuous pressure for social aggrandizement it is extremely difficult for people to think and act in ways that further the general welfare of everyone.

Let it be repeated in summary that all the problems in democratic operation have their genesis in the larger configurational pattern of social and economic relationships.

AGREEMENT ON DEMOCRATIC ACTION IS NEEDED

Agreement has been reached upon the general principles of democratic relationships in many areas of living, and especially is this true in educational circles. Without question, in recent years there has been as much discussion of democracy and its application as of all other educational topics combined. Democratic idealism has literally swept the country; but it should be noted that agreement pertains to general concepts, and not necessarily to definite techniques and procedures of operation.

The next step for educators is to reach agreement on the more specific and definitive points of democratic theory and practice. Beyond doubt, this will not be easy because there are so many misconceptions at the present time. Democracy has been given such diverse meanings that now, to many people, it has no true and exact denotation. Many administrators today want to conceive of democratic practice as the method of operation they are using. In their anxiety to make rapid strides with the modern theory of good administration they embrace the theory but at the same time try to retain all their old and familiar patterns of behavior. It should be observed that the administrative system has not changed in this instance; it has merely been given democratic nomenclature.

For those who are conscientiously trying to function in a

democratic manner there is no intention of being hypercritical of their methods of operation. It is clearly recognized that a perfect system of human relationships cannot be reached in a year or a decade, nor for that matter can it ever be fully attained. Deserving school people should receive credit for their efforts toward democratic administration. To expect the consummation of success at the launching of a program is to demand the impossible. Even when there is rapid progress toward an ideal the elusive rainbow of perfection keeps moving ever further and further into the distance.

LEADERSHIP MUST BE EXPRESSED THROUGH COÖPERATIVE ACTION

Real educational leadership in tomorrow's school will be expressed by an active member of the group probing with others for data that will throw light on the pressing problems of the moment. This new type of leadership will contrast sharply with practices prevalent today, when the administrator devotes his time and energy to the board of education, the noon-service club, and other civic groups in the community. The titular leader will be in the group, not outside it. When the administrator has identified himself with the faculty and is sincerely working for their individual and group welfare, there will be little danger that teachers will form exclusive clubs and unions to further their own self-interest. They will want the administrator to be affiliated with their cause.

In the interactive process each person, the administrator included, will give reasons for the opinions he holds. Anyone who wishes his opinions considered will be requested to make his ideas square with the facts. Facts will not be concealed, they will be revealed. When a relative truth is ascertainable, it will rule over all. The well-being of everyone will take precedence over the well-being of groups or of particular individuals in groups. The approach will be scientific in operation. Intellectual honesty and human welfare will be the guiding principles supporting decisions.

The democratic administrator of the future will center atten-

tion on ideas and principles. Each person in the group will strive to state an idea that all will accept and try to further in their daily living. The real leader in a group at any time will be the one who utters the unspoken desires and wishes of others. He will be able to organize and bring clearly into view ideas which others believe in but are not able to express. People in this new democratic setting will tend to follow ideas, not persons.

LEADERSHIP WILL EXPECT CHANGES

Leadership in tomorrow's democratic group will be based upon a positive point of view toward change, not an attitude that fails to recognize hazards in proposed programs, but a constructive outlook that sees ways and means of attaining desirable educational goals. Each year rules, regulations, policies, and practices will be reëxamined in the hope that better ways can be discovered for meeting educational needs. Such a plan has a far more significant purpose than might appear at first glance. In the first place new staff members frequently have many valuable ideas that should be included in a program. In the second place the new members will come to understand the thinking of the old members when they review policies that have been in operation over a period of time. To help the school and community keep in step with progressive educational thought, carefully formulated experimental programs will be the usual rather than the unusual practice. Each staff member will be encouraged to experiment with programs that are different in some respect from those used in the past. Coöperation will be based on faith that individual staff members can achieve worth-while objectives through effort. Working skillfully with teachers who are creative in their own right will be the distinguishing art of the new administration.

LEADERSHIP WILL START WITH THE COMMON PURPOSES OF ALL

To make such a dream come true, the administrator will accept the problems of pupils, teachers, and laymen as his prob-

lems. In developing the school program he will help people achieve their purposes, not his purposes. Teachers' meetings will be directed toward the solution of people's problems, not his problems. Starting with people's problems has reference value of far greater significance than many titular leaders have yet realized. When a titular leader inaugurates his program it places people on the defensive because they are not certain in their own mind that they can succeed with it. A change is terrifying to people when they feel incapable of handling it; to say it in positive terms, when people feel adequate to deal with a situation they do not fear it. Many pupils, teachers, and laymen are worrying at the present time because their minds are confused or doubtful. There are few situations in school work in which people feel confident and assured of their status; the structure of most educational institutions begets fears. Pupils and parents are afraid of the teacher. The teacher is afraid of the administrator. The administrator is afraid of the board of education. The board of education is afraid of the community. When the titular leader initiates in-service education programs he can be assured of two fundamental conditions: (1) that some members of the group are afraid of not being loved, and (2) that some members are afraid of personal failure. Even more serious is the fact that some people hate what they fear. The antidote to fear is to build a feeling of security. Starting with people's problems is the constructive approach to better education. Most of the fears are imaginative and can be effaced if pupils, teachers, and laymen evolve programs coöperatively.

The new school will be strong because people will be working toward personal, long-sought-for objectives. Morale will be high because each person will see in the future some hope of his purposes reaching fruition. The technique of this new administration will be to coördinate and redirect self-generating programs toward unified and group-motivated programs. If the system operates effectively each individual will see his own goals realized at the same time that he is helping other people

achieve their purposes. In other words, this skillful blending of individualization and socialization will be an exhilarating emotional experience to those who are interested in the artistry of good administration.

LEADERSHIP WILL AFFILIATE WITH A GREAT CAUSE

The titular head of tomorrow's school will recognize that people need a great cause to which they can attach their loyalties. A significant cause is needed (1) to provide the spark to drive people forward to greater achievements in life, and (2) to give them a sense of belonging and social security. Being social creatures and living in a social world, people like to feel that the world is a better place because they have lived in it. In other words, people are so constituted that they need to be caught up and exalted by great purposes in life. This always has been true and there is every reason to believe that it will be even more true in the future.

In order to capitalize upon the basic urge to be affiliated with important movements, the administration will enlist the powers of everyone in projects that at least in a small way improve the tone of living in the cultural pattern. This does not imply that self-enhancement or personal aggrandizement can be ignored as motivating factors in human behavior, but it does mean that these basic urges can be so directed that they will serve the larger purposes of a democratic society. To make the most of this stirring drive for social contribution, the good administration of the future will sponsor such educational projects as will lift people spiritually and emotionally above leanings toward human baseness. To say it in another way, the great cause will give staff members, pupils, and laymen an all-engrossing goal toward which they can direct their energies.

ADMINISTRATION WILL BE VIEWED AS AN AUXILIARY EDUCATIONAL SERVICE

The democratic leader in the years that lie ahead will work quietly in the background, striving to develop leadership

ability in members of the school personnel. He will have a different concept of administration than that commonly accepted today, in that he will be truly cognizant that his primary task is to improve teachers in service. Good administration is an auxiliary service that contributes to the efforts of co-workers in a project. To help others become more efficient in their instructional program the administrator will reduce to a minimum the time-consuming reports, detailed clerical duties, and other onerous tasks that are frustrating to teachers who are working toward significant educational goals. Perhaps the most startling change in the superintendent of schools of the future will be his attitude toward recognition and credit. The credit that the administrator will expect to receive will be a reflected credit radiating from the great achievements of the professional personnel and the desirable changes that have occurred in the community in which he works. He will strive to see that recognition is given members of the staff, pupils, and laymen for achievements made in the school and the community, and at the same time retain credit for himself only for his success in helping people become better teachers and learners.

SKILL IN GROUP PROCESS WILL BE STEADILY IMPROVED

That there is much room for study and improvement of the interactive process can be verified by those who have participated in groups or observed groups in action. What has been presented here are some principles of human relationships that form part of the base, but only a part, from which the democratic group begins operations. Even though considerable progress has been made with discussion techniques, it must be admitted that there is still considerable distance to travel before educators can look with pride on their achievements with group activity. As Lloyd Allen Cook has written:

Group process education is very old, very poorly done, very promising. It is poorly done because few of us can or do make it the object of sys-

tematic study. Group work seems, to most educators, a simple thing of breaking a big group up into little groups, each with its own problems. Although this is good, it is not good enough. It gives one very little to write about, to communicate to the profession. Articles take the tone of Look! I have done it too! It works! It is wonderful!

All of this has no real meaning unless it can be viewed in light of the problems we face in modernizing education. If there ever was a time when we should cure ourselves of every form of blindness that prevents us from acting with others in a common cause, that time is now. The need is great, changes are in process, and the lag is not in fine ideals but in effective methods. We do not yet know how to work with people. (5)

In projecting thinking into the future, it seems apparent that the successful furtherance of democratic administration depends largely upon the improvement of the group process. It should be said frankly that there is much more under the surface with groups than ever comes into clear view from discussion. When people meet to solve problems they are affected by myriads of emotional reactions, both positive and negative, caused by such factors as, on the one hand, fears, insecurity, prejudices, pressures, and lack of faith in the integrity of their fellow members, and, on the other, a feeling of belonging, security, fellowship, ego involvement, and the exalted sense of working toward goals of common concern. Establishing faith in the honesty, fairness, and integrity of one member with another is surely the first step in furthering improvements in the interactive process. To repeat in thought what Lloyd Allen Cook said so forcefully, thinking together creatively is an interactive skill yet to be learned. Since the democratic process is based on group operations, surely a challenging goal for school staffs is to master the art of pooling mental resources.

Educators need to raise their sights. People now are ready to accept and to work toward a universal brotherhood of men as they never have been ready before. Men literally are yearning for peace and security in the world.

What is needed today is an educational solution to world problems that people will fall in love with and come to possess as their own. To repeat what has been said earlier, it is ideas

that move people to action. Significant ideas live forever. One needs but to examine the pages of history to see the magnetic influence of such concepts as Magna Carta, the Bill of Rights, the Declaration of Independence, the French Constitution—to see their influence in molding the behavior of people. Ideas create their own power of locomotion; they move forward under their own steam.

Educators need programs in the future that are irradiated by ideals. Learning is an emotional process as well as an intellectual activity. To a great extent men live with their imaginations. In all people there is the dream of transcending the limitations of their own natures. The dynamic and challenging goal for education in the future is to improve people's relationship with one another—in an intellectual sense, where there is interaction of thought processes; in an emotional manner, where there is sharing and receiving; and in a coöperative way, where there is working together to improve all aspects of community life.

QUESTIONS

1. What would be the characteristics of an educational program that fosters the world brotherhood of man? How much of our present-day educational programs foster such a brotherhood? What new features should be added to our programs to foster world peace and world brotherhood?
2. How would you teach people to be creative and individualistic and still develop coöperative behavior in them? Are individuation and socialization in conflict as social goals? Would it be desirable to eliminate individuation as a social goal?
3. What restrictions should be placed on competition in public schools? What does competition do to the personalities of people? In what way does coöperation develop the personalities of people?
4. What are desirable laws, rules, and regulations in a society? Do laws further democratic goals? What are undesirable laws in a free society?
5. What is the role of the superintendent of schools as an expert in society? Should experts determine all policies? Are you satisfied with the role experts are playing today?
6. What role would a socialized, democratic teachers' union play in democratic educational administration?

PROBLEM

List characteristics of an educational program that would be appropriate for a free society; then formulate a five-, ten-, fifteen-, and twenty-year program for the approximate attainment of your ideal. Will an educational program in a free society ever be fully attained?

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